DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 135 162 EC 093 006

AUTHOR	Casto, Glendon; And Others
TITLE	Affective Behavior in Preschool Children. Final Report.
INSTITUTION	Utah State Univ., Logan. Exceptional Child Center.
SPONS AGENCY	Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (DHEW/OE), Washington, D.C. Div. of Research.
BUREAU NO	443MH-500-12
PUB DATE	Jun 76
CONTRACT	300-75-0254
NOTE	244p.; For the summary report, see EC 093 007
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.83 HC-$12.71 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Affective Behavior; *Affective Tests; *Annotated Bibliographies; *Emotional Development; *Handicapped Children; Historical Reviews; *Instructional Materials; Personality Development; Preschool Education; Research Needs; Research Reviews (Publications); Self Concept; Social Development; *Theories

ABSTRACT

Presented is the final report of a project to review the state of the art in basic areas of affective development (emotional state and personal attitudes) in the normal and handicapped preschool child. The document is divided into six major sections. In the first chapter, three general areas are covered--a historical discussion of theories of affective development, theories of emotion, and the five dimensions of affective development (emergence of self, caretaker attachment, adaptation-mastery, self concept, and socialization). Chapter 2 focuses on affective development involving six handicapping conditions: emotionally disturbed, speech impaired, hearing impaired and deaf, physically handicapped, mentally retarded, and blind and partially seeing. Reviewed in chapter 3 (which includes an annotated bibliography on 27 instruments) are the available assessment instruments which measure affective development in the preschool child. Presented in chapter 4 is a bibliography of 29 available curriculum materials for affective development. Gaps in theory and research and recommendations for further study of affective development are covered in chapter 5. The final section is an annotated bibliography of references related to the following topics: theories of emotion and overviews of affective development in children, specific aspects of affective development, affective development of handicaped children, affective education and curriculum, and instrumentation and research methodology in the study of affective development. (SBH)

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FINAL REPORT

Contract No. 300-75-0254
Project No. 443MH 500 12

AFFECTIVE BEHAVIOR IN PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN

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June 30, 1976

United States Department of Health
Education and Welfare

Bureau of Education For
The Handicapped

Research Division

EC093006

PREFACE

This project is one of a series of reviews of the state of the art in basic areas of child development funded by the Research Division of the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped. This project addressed affective development in the normal and handicapped preschool child. The project, which ran for one year, had as its major objectives to:

1. Analyze available data on child development that relates to affective development.
2. Analyze available data on handicapped children's affective development.
3. Analyze available educational techniques and materials which relate to affective development.
4. Analyze available instrumentation for assessing affective development.
5. Identify critical questions and information gaps requiring further study.
6. Develop a conceptual framework for pursuing further inquiry.

The first four objectives were realized by developing manuscripts that: (1) reviewed affective development in normal and handicapped pre-school children, (2) reviewed available educational techniques and materials, (3) reviewed available instrumentation for assessing affective development.

To identify critical questions and information gaps requiring further inquiry into the area, a national conference was held. This two-day conference, sponsored by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, was held in Washington, D. C. on June 16 and 17, 1976. Prior to the conference rough drafts of the manuscripts were sent to the participants. The purpose of the conference was to elicit suggestions for revision of the manuscripts and recommendations for future research. Following the conference, revisions were incorporated and the final report prepared.

We would like to express appreciation to all those individuals who provided comments and recommendations, both at the Washington, D. C. conference and at the project site: Alan Sroufe, University of Minnesota; Norbert Enzer, Michigan State University; Pat Yonas, University of Minnesota; Marsha Shearer, Portage Project; A. R. Wight, Montana State Department of Education; Niles Wusterbarth, American University; De Voe Rickert, Utah State University; and James Shaver, Utah State University.

Special appreciation should go to Nancy Carlson of Michigan State University and Tom Cassel of Wayne State University who supported the idea of a national conference and whose socio-ecological model of adaptive functioning stimulated our thinking immensely.

We are grateful to Max Mueller of the Research Division for supporting the national conference idea and to James Hamilton, our Project Officer, who faithfully kept us on task and contributed immeasurably to the conference.

Finally, a special acknowledgement goes to Roberta LaMont who typed everything at least ten times with only minimum hostility and maximum speed and accuracy.

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June, 1976

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INTRODUCTION

The importance of the affective domain in the overall development of the individual has long been recognized. The study of affect has proven to be highly problematic, however. Attempts to explain affective development have resulted in many theories of affective development and emotional arousal and a plethora of research projects which have provided bits and pieces of largely unorganized information. One complicating factor has been the failure of researchers to agree on definitions of affect and emotion. Definitions range from those emphasizing neurophysiological components to those employing an experiential, phenomenological frame.

In this manuscript, we have deliberately chosen a broad definition since we hope to stimulate interest in an aspect of development that has received relatively little consideration. Affect is therefore defined as including the emotional state and the personal attitudes of the individual. The emotional state includes the individual's appraisal of his state and the situation, the physiological reaction, and the motor response. Personal attitudes refer to such variables as self-concept and evaluations of others. A minor distinction is made between affect and emotion in this manuscript, with affect referring to a wide range of feeling experience and emotion referring to specific states.

The particular point of view which directed the preparation of these manuscripts was a conceptualization of the infant and young child as a "controlled system". According to this view, the individual, from conception on, is in constant interaction with the environment. This interaction may lead to a fit between the individual and his environment. When the mutual adaptation leads to a proper fit, the conditions are established for continuing growth and development. Not only does the individual adapt to his environment, but the environment often makes accommodations for the individual. For instance, family members may adjust to the presence of a new infant by changing their schedules in order to meet the new member's needs.

The individual, even at infancy, is equipped with behaviors and survival systems that direct his transactions with the environment. If provided with the usual environmental conditions needed for survival (i.e., shelter, food, caregivers), the individual is capable of acting on the environment in such a way as to successfully meet his needs. That is, the infant is a competent system whose behaviors are purposeful. For the sake of illustration, let us consider one infant behavior, the smile. The social smile emerges at the young age of about two months. This smile is not random, but directed at the caregivers. It serves to reinforce the caregiver for attending to the infant and thus ensures continued care. It also connotes a state of satisfaction, and serves to inform the caregiver that all is well.

The process of achieving an adaptation thus involves exchanges between an individual with purposeful behavior and a more or less accommodating environment. Removal of an individual from the environment he is adapted to and placement in another environment energizes behavior directed toward successful adaptation. Similarly, changing the environment results in disruptions analogous to those arising when an ecosystem in nature is disrupted or disturbed. The system attempts to repair itself. The success of the repair efforts depends upon the nature and severity of the disruption and the capacity of the individual and the environment for adaptation.

The implications of this model for the young handicapped demand consideration. There are, of course, tremendous individual differences in the manner in which an adaptive fit with one's environment is achieved.* The handicapped child usually confronts more barriers to achieving this fit than the so-called normal child. He oftentimes is not as well equipped to deal with the environment. Also, some environmental conditions, such as negative evaluation of the handicapped, may interfere with the environment's accommodation of the individual. Adaptation to new or disturbed environments also presents problems for the handicapped. Our society exacerbates the problems by forcing the handicapped to undergo environmental transitions through our processes of labeling and segregating them. In the case of the handicapped child who undergoes a transition from the home to an institution at an early age, the disruption in the environment, and subsequently in the individual, may be so severe as to preclude adaptation.

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*The term "adaptive fit" as used here has been defined by Carlson and Cassel in a forthcoming manuscript on adaptive functioning available through Bureau of Education for the Handicapped.

In summary, systems theory emphasizes the infant's capacity for adaptation, his competence as a system, the importance of the exchange between individual and environment, and the critical nature of environmental accommodation. Systems theory may thus provide a unifying framework from which to view development.

One other viewpoint determined the organization of the manuscript. In order to relate curriculum, assessment devices, and annotated bibliography entries to key areas of development, affective development was dichotomized into five critical dimensions. These dimensions were chosen because they appear to be central to affective development. The dimensions include:

1. Emergence of Self (Physical, Cognitive, Affective)
2. Caretaker Attachment
3. Adaptation-Mastery
4. Self-concept
5. Socialization

Obviously, affective development is not segmented into distinct and independent dimensions, but the dimensions provide a useful analytic framework for explanation and integration.

This manuscript is organized into six major sections. In the first chapter, "History and Theory of Emotion and Affective Development", three general areas are covered. First of all, a brief historical discussion of theories of affective development is presented in which the emphasis is on providing an historical and philosophical background against which to view theory-building and research in the area. The second section discusses theories of emotion. The more important theories that have been advanced to explain the nature of emotion are presented, most of which are psychological, although some also consider physiological mechanisms. The third section discusses affective development in terms of the five dimensions mentioned above. It is the purpose of this discussion to trace the major events in the infant and young child's affective development. The first chapter is intended to pave the way for subsequent chapters by providing a schema within which to view affective development.

Chapter two speaks to "Affective Development in Handicapped Preschool Children". Development is discussed for these six handicapping conditions: (1) the emotionally disturbed, (2) the speech impaired, (3) hearing impaired and deaf, (4) the physically handicapped, (5) the mentally retarded, and (6) the blind and partially seeing.

A few handicapping conditions are not discussed. The areas of multiply handicapped and learning disabilities were not covered because both conditions tend to be identified after extended periods of interaction with the environment. These conditions are therefore usually identified at later ages.

The scope of this project was indeed very broad. We could not hope to review all the pertinent material in detail. Our goal was, rather, to survey the area of affective development to determine the state of the art. Thus, one of the most important goals of the project was to identify gaps in theory and research and make recommendations for further study of affective development. This is the purpose of chapter five.

The last section of this report is an annotated bibliography of references related to affective development in the normal and handicapped preschool child. References are organized according to subject matter.

Chapter I

HISTORY AND THEORY OF EMOTION AND DIMENSIONS OF AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT

THEORIES OF AFFECT

Affect has been described in dualistic terms since the time of Aristotle, who distinguished between the visceral component of affect and the psychological state but insisted that a complete definition recognizes that both these entities comprise emotion. Descartes' theory of affect provides a good example of dualism. Descartes made a sharp distinction between the state of individual feelings (mind) and the expressive or behavioral aspect (body). In an attempt to explain the relationship between these components Descartes postulated that the pineal gland was the seat of their connection. This explanation was found inadequate since this gland does not function as he had speculated. To this day, scientists recognize the dualistic nature of affect and continue in their struggle to find a theory that adequately explains psychological and physiological components of affect.

Empirical research on the subject of affect had its beginning with Charles Darwin (1896), whose original theory spurred much thought and research. Darwin was particularly interested in the study of affect from an evolutionary standpoint. He attempted to demonstrate that great similarities exist within species in regards to emotional expression and that differences in emotional expressions across species vary according to a species position on the phylogenetic scale. Darwin proposed a few main principles to explain the origin of emotional expression. The first, that of serviceable associated traits, holds that through constant repetition certain expressive actions become habits and are passed on from generation to generation. This implies that learned emotional behavior can become inheritable material. According to another principle, some emotional expression is the direct result of excitement of the nervous sytem. This was a novel idea since emotional expression had not previously been considered solely a physiological phenomenon. Darwin's assumption that acquired characteristics can be inherited is highly doubtful but it is generally accepted that some emotions have an innate, evolutionary basis. Darwin was the first to introduce the notion that the nervous system plays an important role in the excitement of emotional expression and this idea greatly influenced subsequent thinking on the topic.

William James, a contemporary of Darwin's formulated an original theory of affect which focused on the sequencing of emotional expression. He hypothesized that the expressive aspect of emotion dictates the state or feeling. For example, we do not cry (behavioral expression) because we feel sorry (emotional state), but we feel sorry (emotional state) because we cry (behavioral expression) (James, 1890). James' theory generated a great deal of research concentrating on bodily patterns of physiological arousal.

Cannon articulated the first of the neurophysiological theories of affect. He refuted some of James' contentions by presenting evidence that (1) visceral changes are too slow to be a source of emotion and that (2) artifical induction of visceral changes typical of emotions does not result in an emotional state. Cannon posited that emotions are produced in the thalamus and inhibited in the cortex and that the emotional expression (state) and emotional behavior (expression) are, thus, independent. Cannon's theory, though oversimplified, did stimulate much research as to the role of the central nervous system in emotion. We now know, although the picture is not complete, that thalamic cortical brain structures play complex and interrelated roles in the expression and inhibition of emotion.

Research investigating correlations between brain wave patterns and psychological functions led to Lindsley's formulation of "activation theory" (1951). Lindsley performed a series of experiments which demonstrated that the reticular system of the brain must be activated in order for a significant emotional behavior to occur. Lindsley thus viewed the reticular formation as the site of emotional activation. Activation theory by itself, however, does not explain all instances of emotional arousal and Lindsley admits that "Activation theory appears to account for the extremes but leaves intermediate and mixed states relatively unexplained as yet" (1951, p. 509).

George Mandler (1962 , 1975) has suggested that activation theory is incomplete since it accounts for one stage of emotional expression only, that being the activation process. Mandler has deliberately proposed a purely cognitive theory which speaks to plans and the interruptions of plans. According to his formulation the interruption of any plan produces automatic arousal and the interpretation of this arousal represents the emotion. Actually, there is little place for valuing and emotional investment in Mandler's system.

Arnold,(1960) in contrast, considers emotion a felt action tendency which functions to invoke or guide behavior. Appraisal is a key concept in Arnold's theory as appraisal results in a display of the emotion deemed appropriate whether it be positive or negative. Body reactions follow the intuitive appraisal although they may play a part in continuing appraisal.

Sroufe (1976), while pointing out the utility of Mandler and Arnold's positions believes that a tension theory which ....

> "provides a role for the striving, actively engaged organism, better accounts for the range of emotions, and infant behavior in general than any existing theory." (p. 12)

He is presently articulating such a theory. Theories such as Sroufe's (1976), and also Emde (1975), should be especially useful because they are being developed out of developmental research programs.

In taking a retrospective look at theories of affect certain problem areas emerge. A central concern has been the relationship between the physiological experience and the psychological state. Theorists have been uncertain as to whether emotional arousal must necessarily be the result of physiological change or a psychological set. If arousal occurs via one channel, how does it influence expression in the other domain? And what are the important physiological and psychological stimuli that lead to emotional arousal. Important research findings which address these points are studies by (1) Yeakel and Rhodes (1951), who found that emotional stimuli may originate in the environment or within neuronal circuits activated by chemical or electrical triggers; (2) Gibson and Walk (1956), who demonstrated that some emotional reactions depend on sensory inputs while others do not; and (3) Delgado (1973), who found that conscious interpretation is necessary for some types of emotion but not for others. Delgado has summarized by citing research which concludes that "The identification of stimuli as emotional always depends on the relation between the source and the responding individual and these stimuli may be classified as being natural stimuli, cultural stimuli, and individual stimuli" (Delgado, 1973, p.).

Other research has shown that experience and maturation play an important role in the emergence of affect in the human infant. For instance, Schnirila (1959) has suggested that the emotional response is dependent upon the occurrence of a visceral discharge. This would indicate that the accumulation of experience, which is dependent upon cortical development, plays a major role in emotional development. In the very young infant much of the cortex is immature and emotional responses are largely expressive, resembling those of phylogenetically lower animals. As the cortex matures, as experience accumulates, and as learning takes place, this expressive aspect loses dominance and we see the emergence of more complex emotions.

DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIFIC EMOTIONS

The area of affective development which relates to appearance and manifestation of specific emotions has not received as much attention as theories of emotional arousal. However, it does seem to be the case that basic emotions appear in an orderly manner by differentiating out of a basic emotional state which is usually labeled excitement. Historically, this position was first arrived at through the work of Bridges (1932). Her classic study refuted the earlier hypotheses of John Watson (1925) who had maintained that the infant possesses three basic emotions at birth: love, fear, and anger, and that other emotions become differentiated later, through conditioning processes. Bridges' longitudinal study demonstrated that the first emotion appears as a generalized excitement reaction. As the infant grows older, this generalized reaction differentiates into other specific positive and negative emotions. While there is some question as to the accuracy of some of the labels attached to emotional states, there is general agreement regarding the differentiation principle. The specific emotions that appear represent an interaction between hereditary, maturational, and environmental variables. Bridges found basic emotions appearing in the following sequence: excitement, distress, delight, anger, disgust, fear, elation. Work done by Ekman and Associates (1975) have led them to suggest that basic emotions are innate and appear uniformly across cultures. They believe it is the display of emotions that is learned, primarily through exposure to one's culture.

Studying specific emotions represents a fruitful area for research since in most cases, specific emotions can be operationally defined and subjected to laboratory analysis. For example, Alan Sroufe and associates have developed a tentative outline of the development of specific affects (emotions) which is based on their research findings. While in disagreement with Bridges over the labeling of specific emotions, they generally agree in terms of the timing of their appearance. What is needed are more attempts to bring specific emotions into the laboratory for experimental analysis.

There is some recent research which suggests different types of temperaments among developing infants. That is, infants manifest different patterns of emotional development, these patterns being stable for individuals. Thomas, Chess, and Birch (1968) have identified three basic temperamental styles: easy, slow to warm up, and difficult. These behavioral profiles were discernable as early as two to three months and tended to persist over the years. In support of this notion, Lacey (1958) found that infants exhibit different but stable patterns of visceral response. Taken together, these findings have implications for the study of determinants of infant behavior. Thomas, Chess, and Birch (1968) conclude that the debate over the relative importance of nature and nurture only confuses the issue; personality is shaped by the constant interplay of temperament and environment. We must recognize that an immense galaxy of variables govern emotional development in individuals. These variables can probably be best understood if we view the developing child as a complex system. "The neonate is not a neophyte." That is, the newborn is not devoid of behavioral mechanisms and equipment that can be employed in coping with his new environment.

The view of the young child as a complex system is one that is being increasingly recognized, specifically by those proposing a systems theory (i.e., Bowlby, 1969 and Frank, 1966). These theorists propose that organisms are equipped with complex behavior patterns which are goal-oriented and actively seek feedback. This orientation differs from the cause-effect, stimulus-response paradigms in that the organism is not only capable of a complex array of behaviors in response to a unitary stimulus but that the organism can itself act on the environment in a purposeful manner. According to Frank (1966, p. 178):

> "To advance the study of infants we may formulate a model of the infant as a General Purpose system. Such a model would recognize the inherited potentialities of the young organism and the basic processes operating in this self-organizing, self-stabilizing, self-directing, largely self-repairing, open system which becomes progressively patterned, oriented, and coupled to the culturally established dimensions of his environment, natural and human."

Systems theory thus regards the infant as a competent organism equipped with purposive behavior patterns, efficient effectors, and feedback mechanisms which facilitate flexibility and goal-oriented behavior. According to control systems theory, the maturing infant gradually develops skills which expand his behavioral repertoire and enhance his competency as an open system.

There is concensus among theorists as to the general course of the development of emotions. That is, the infant is equipped with a simple response repertoire at birth (to Bridges it is the generalized excitement reaction). More sophisticated emotional patterns later emerge. Some researchers (i.e., Thomas, Chess, and Birch, 1968) emphasize the uniqueness of temperament styles, making the point that development proceeds by way of a complex interplay between temperament and environment. The present authors propose that the control systems theory provides a valuable stance for viewing emotional development in the infant. According to control systems theory, the infant is a competent organism equipped with a purposive behavioral repertoire.

Summary

In our brief look at affect and emotion we have discerned certain principles that follow from theories and empirical research in the area. Although our report of these reviews has not been exhaustive, we would like to summarize with some important principles of affective development and follow with a tentative outline of affective development.

1. A complex interaction exists between affective development, cognitive development, and perceptual motor development.
2. Affect serves to alert, arouse and energize behavior. It may also direct the behavior of human organisms at certain times, serving a survival function.
3. Affect in terms of both the experience (state) and the behavioral expression represents an interaction between hereditary factors and environmental conditions.
4. Affective development follows a predictable course and is governed by maturation, learning, and environmental conditions.

OUTLINE OF AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT

DEVELOPMENTAL DIMENSION	SPECIFIC EMOTION	POSSIBLE PHYSIOLOGICAL MECHANISMS
	0-3 Months	
1. Discovery of physical self 2. Self as object of affect	Excitement Delight Distress	Reticular Activating System
	3-6 Months	
1. Object permanence	Fear Emotion	Upper Brain Stem
	6-12 Months	
1. Caretaker attachment 2. Affective decentering 3. Separation anxiety	Anger Love (affection)	Limbie System Thalmus Hypothalmus
	12-24 months	
1. Mastery (competence) 2. Self-concept 3. Behavioral ego-contrism 4. Separation-individuation	Disgust Jealousy Affection	Neo-Cortical System
	24-48 months	
1. Socialization	Guilt Pride Defiance Etc.	

DIMENSIONS OF AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT

This section discusses the course of affective development in the infant and preschooler. The authors chose to depict this development as proceeding according to five dimensions of development. It must be understood that these dimensions are interrelated and may also develop simultaneously. However, it is more appropriate to view some of the dimensions as indicative of specific age periods, simply because the organism matures gradually and manifests more complex behavorial capacities as he develops. The five dimensions are intended to encompass the important events in affective development. The dimensions in approximate developmental order, are as follows:

Dimension 1	Emergence of Self (physical, cognitive, affective)
Dimension 2	Caretaker Attachment - Separation
Dimension 3	Adaptation-Mastery
Dimension 4	Self-Concept
Dimension 5	Socialization

A discussion of affective development as it proceeds through these five dimensions follows.

Emergence of Self

Emergence of self refers to the infant's growing awareness that he is separate from his environment. This awareness takes place, of course, on physical, cognitive, and affective levels. In the course of development the individual moves toward maturation in physical, cognitive, and affective areas in a complex manner. Development on all levels proceeds concurrently with complex interactions taking place at all times.

Actually, the only separation that exists between these processes is the artificial one imposed by scientists. That is, for the sake of utility we segment behavior. It would be impossible to explain and study human development without breaking it into workable units. The present authors also accept this separation of physical, cognitive, and affective components but recognize that it is an artificial separation. Our emphasis, then, in speaking to the emergence of self, will be on those events in development that fit what we have defined as affect, although reference will be made to physical and cognitive events that are relevant.

Our discussion of the emergence of self will focus on three interrelated events that contribute to this development: discovery of physical self, emergence of self as object of affect, and development of object permanence.

Discovery of physical self refers to the infant's emerging knowledge that his body parts belong to him. This knowledge is important in terms of how the infant manipulates his body parts and thereby gains satisfaction from this ability. The discovery of physical self is undertaken during pregnancy. Many behaviors become apparent before birth. These behaviors include both reflexive behaviors such as breathing or sucking and flexing behaviors which occur as a result of direct stimulation. Because of the uneven nature of growth during the fetal period, many of the infant's first behaviors are gross and global in nature. However, the infant is born with a number of behaviors which facilitate the discovery of physical self. Photographs taken in utero clearly demonstrate, for example, a fetus sucking his thumb.

The infant's discovery of his physical self and the separation of his physical self from his environment accelerate at birth. Much of our knowledge about the newborn's repertoire comes from Piaget's detailed observation of his own children. Piaget noted that two of his children could repeat reflex action within less than an hour of birth, at which time they had already sucked their hands. Indeed, it seems that the discovery of the hands is the first self-discovery. Infants can see and fixate on the movement of their hands across their field of vision. They learn by touch that these hands which sometimes find their way to the mouth and other parts of the body can be manipulated. It seems that sometime between the third and fourth month the child discovers his hands are always with him.

The infant is constantly expanding his repertoire of physical actions to discover and utilize more and more of his body. The newborn infant has several reflexive responses and his early activity involves generalized movements of many parts of the body. However, the newborn immediately begins to interact with his environment and his behavioral repertoire quickly expands beyond simple reflex actions. For example, Shirley (1933) found that more than half of a sample of twenty-five infants could (1) follow a light with their eyes by the end of the first week after birth; (2) fix their eyes visually on an object by three weeks of age; and (3) visually follow a horizontally moving object by nine weeks.

The infant thus builds from his available physical mechanisms and reflex actions a more complex behavioral repertoire. As basic movements of the eyes, mouth, fingers, and legs come under progressive control from the cortex, these movements become purposive and better coordinated. The infant thus seeks out and explores its body. Knowledge of his physical self and immediate environment is enhanced. In this way, the infant's ability to act on his physical self and the world around him increases. The crying response offers a good example of this progression. Whereas the crying response is expressive at first, evidence suggests that it can later be a mode of communication directed specifically toward one part of the environment, the mother (Bell and Ainsworth, 1973). We thus see the infant developing from a reflexive to an action-oriented mode of physical expression. As Stechler and Carpenter (1967) report:

> "We now see babies as seeking stimuli, as organizing themselves around these stimuli; as having considerable capacity to process the information contained in the stimuli, and within limits to regulate the adaptive mechanisms of the body in relation to their information" (p. 177).

Discovery of physical self is viewed as highly important to subsequent affective development. The infant gains satisfaction from manipulation of his body parts and the objects he comes into contact with. His physical actions progress from reflexes to action-oriented behaviors.

Early in life the infant begins to learn about the complex world of emotional stimuli and responses. He learns how to elicit responses from others by emitting certain acts, such as crying.

Bridges (1932) observed that the best differentiation that can be made in emotions at birth is between a quiescent state and a state that can be labeled excitement. From this beginning, emotional behaviors appear in a very stable sequence, much like motor behaviors. This sequence of development apparently encompasses many of the things Piaget talks about in primary circular reactions in that behaviors are purposive and show evidence of the beginnings of causal thought.

The child basically learns to use affect as an interaction tool. A whole new area of research is now examining the infant's ability to act on his environment and to elicit specific responses from his caretakers. The distress reactions observed at the end of the first month of development elicit certain responses from the child's caretaker. Indeed, Bell and Ainsworth (1973) have shown that a reciprocal relationship exists between crying and maternal responsiveness such that both behaviors can and do influence each other. Smiling, increased vocalization, and increased bodily activity, which emerge at the end of the second or third month, also serve to elicit responses from significant others. An infant's affective development progresses from an undifferentiated stage in which the child emits emotional behavior indiscriminately to a stage in which the child is able to emit an emotional response called for by a specific situation. The importance of this sequence of development has been pointed out by Stechler and Carpenter (1967), who view affect as a mechanism which provides the infant with a highly adaptive communication system. Since the young child does not have a completely developed neuromuscular system, the sensory-affective mechanism allows him to receive information, communicate information to his caretaker, receive feedback, and thus become more articulate and well-organized. The development of the self as object of affect is a necessary prerequisite to the formation of caretaker attachment, since caretaker attachment presumes that the infant is capable of emitting emotional responses and eliciting them from others.

Object permanence, a Piagetian concept, refers to the infant's ability to conceptualize the existence of an object when that object is not in sight. The infant must be capable of sensorimotor exploration so that he can interact with objects prior to the emergence of object permanence. According to

Uzgiris (1967), the major schemes by which infants interact with objects include holding, mouthing, visual inspection, biting, shaking, and examining. She suggests that these reactions form a functional hierarchy, with later appearing schemas depending on the acquisition of earlier ones.

The development of object permanence proceeds in this manner: Initially, the infant's perception of the world is of a changing scene with objects floating in and out of his field. That is, his attention is centered on objects which have no permanence. When the child loses sight of the object it ceases to exist. But as the child moves through the schemas by which he interacts with objects, his perceptions take a different form. At about nine or ten months, according to Piaget, a child demonstrates his knowledge of the existence of objects outside his perception by searching for them when they are missing from his sight and touch. He thus develops more subtle discriminations in perception. He now begins to understand the permanence of both animate and inanimate things. The ability to conceive of objects as permanent is highly important to the infant and signals the emergence of many other abilities. It is the awakening of memory and the beginning of the ability to discriminate between specific persons and objects. It is, thus, integral to the development of the ability to learn from experience and to develop an attachment for one's caretaker.

Caretaker Attachment

Caretaker attachment represents a critical element in emotional development. That there is some special tie between an infant and his caretaker is an obvious fact. The basis from which this attachment arises, the functionality of it, and the characteristics that are unique to it have all been matters of debate.

The first researcher to speak to caretaker attachment was Rene Spitz (1945), who observed infants in a South American orphanage. In his study of orphaned infants Spitz found that there was a progressive deterioration in infant's physical health after their mothers left, even though physical care was supposedly adequate. Many of these infants died and several others suffered severe defects. Spitz concluded that this wasting away, called marasmus, was due to the lack of mothering. Although Spitz's work has been criticized for its lack of controls and experimental rigidity his introduction of the notion that mothering is of crucial importance in the emotional development of infants was a noteworthy one.

Some of the parameters of caretaker attachment are widely agreed upon and have been researched in a developmental framework. Caretaker attachment is a universal occurrence in both man and subhuman primates. Caretaker attachment involves a strong emotional tie such that a mutual responsivity exists that will insure the caring for of the infant. The mutual responsivity between caretaker and infant thus assures the development of attachment. For instance, the cry of the infant alerts the mother and her subsequent attempts to comfort the infant result in cessation of infant crying and satisfaction or, at the very least, relief, on the mother's part. The infant's abilities to fixate on the mother and to smile at her contribute to her emotional attachment to him which, in turn, contributes to his attachment to her. The infant is equipped at birth with some responses that are directed toward the meeting of needs and development of attachment. The newborn infant can cry, suck, and grasp an object placed in his hand. From three to five months there is a marked increase in smiling to human faces and voices. Before attachment to one particular caretaker can be observed it is necessary that the infant be able to perceptually discriminate the caretaker from others and be able to respond differentially to individuals. This characteristic of attachment behavior has proved to be a valuable indicator of caretaker attachment. Many researchers use the amount of distress displayed in the mother's absence and/or stranger's presence to measure the degree to which attachment has occurred. In our culture this "separation anxiety" is first observed at about six months of age. Communication is, of course, an important factor in the attachment process. An infant can signal his mother by means of vocal and physical cues. The mother must be able to accurately interpret these cues in order to respond appropriately. There is some evidence that maternal responsiveness is associated with the strength of the attachment (Schaffer and Emerson, 1964).

The classic interpretation of caretaker attachment is derived from learning the theory and holds that attachment occurs as result of the secondary reinforcement arising from satisfaction of such basic physiological needs as hunger, thirst, and pain. According to Dollard and Miller (1950), for instance, the feeding experience can be the occasion for an infant's learning to like to be with others and can, thus, establish the basis for sociability. The mother is a new stimulus that comes to be associated with the reduction of pain and provision of pleasure in such a way that she acquires reinforcing value. This secondary drive theory defines attachment as a process whereby physiological needs are satisfied and denies that attachment is a dynamic process involving emotional attachment and mutual responsivity between mother and child.

As research on caretaker attachment in humans and primates accumulated, the secondary drive theory came to be challenged. The Harlows' critical experiments with infant monkeys indicate that the satisfaction of physiological needs is not necessarily the primary determinant of attachment (Harlow and Harlow, 1966). Harlow found that when monkeys were given a choice between a wire-mesh surrogate mother who fed them and a surrogate covered with terrycloth who did not, they more often chose the terrycloth mother and spent more time clinging to it. Also, when in a fearful situation, contact with the terrycloth mother was more fear-reducing than contact with the wire-mesh surrogate from which the monkey fed. Such research seriously questions the secondary drive theory since Harlow has demonstrated infant needs that transcend physiological needs. Also, a reexamination of the variables critical to the formation of attachment is called for.

Another theorist who is prominent in the area of attachment, John Bowlby, further challenges the secondary drive theory. Bowlby's classic explication on attachment (1960) is the result of long years of observation and work, beginning in 1950 with a request from the World Health Organization to advise on the effects of maternal deprivation in the child. Bowlby's base is psychoanalytic but he also takes into consideration research on subhuman primates. He questions the secondary drive theory on the grounds that food plays only a marginal part in the development and maintenance of attachment behavior and that the infant is far from being a tabula rasa at birth. According to Bowlby, he is equipped with a number of behavioral systems which enable him to act on his environment and thus contribute to the formation of attachment. The general class of behavior characteristic of attachment is seeking and maintaining proximity to another individual. Social tendencies are, thus, an important feature in Bowlby's formulation of the infant as an active organism. There are a number of inborn behavior patterns, such as clinging, sucking, smiling, and crying that serve to bind the child to the mother. These behavior patterns are instincts that have evolved due to their functionality. Bowlby states that the most likely function of attachment behavior is protection from predators. According to Bowlby's view, a child is likely to attach himself especially to one figure.

Of late, ethology has made some contributions to caretaker attachment theory and research. Ethology views attachment in terms of its utility for the species and the individual. Caretaker attachment is, thus, a phenomenon that has evolved because it has survival value. To this end, each individual is equipped with a special set of responses that he can emit at birth or shortly thereafter. An infant will emit the responses typical of attachment when the appropriate stimulus, the caretaker, elicits these responses. The adaptive value of attachment in human infants is obvious. Human infants are highly dependent and the period of infancy is longer than that of any other mammal. A strong emotional tie between infant and caretaker is necessary to assure that the infant will be adequately cared for during this extended period.

Attachment behavior develops out of an infant's interactions with a caretaker. Contact and cuddling play a role in the development of attachment, as does the visual interaction of the infant with a caretaker. The degree of sensory stimulation provided the infant by the caretaker seems to play a role also. Researchers generally agree that caretaker attachment is crucial to normal affective development.

Adaptation-Mastery

Attachment serves the young infant well, for he would not be able to survive without a caretaker. Separation anxiety, or distress responses emitted by the infant, safeguard the attachment by communicating the infant's fear of separation from his caretaker. This separation anxiety does not become apparent until the infant has learned to discriminate between his caretaker and others and until the infant has a sense of the permanence of objects and people.

Research has noted that children separated from a caretaker are quick to notice the caretaker's absence and exhibit varying amounts of anxiety (Ainsworth and Wittig, 1969). Play activity decreases and efforts to reach the mother increase. Similarly, stranger anxiety can be noted in the young infant approximately one month after a specific attachment has been formed. Children of ages one and two exhibit separation anxiety to a greater extent than other age groups. They exhibit more initial distress and are slow to recover when placed back with the mother. By the time a child is three years old he shows less initial reaction and recovers fairly quickly. At four years of age he may be little affected by brief separation if development has proceeded in a normal pattern. In reviewing the extensive literature on separation, Bowlby (1972) has proposed that the events described above represent a natural sequence in healthy affective development. That is:

1. An infant develops an attachment to caretaker.
2. When a young baby is separated from the caretaker, he exhibits emotional distress.

3. As the baby becomes confident that the attachment figure will always be available to him the behavior emitted upon separation diminishes in intensity.
4. These expectations regarding the availability of the attachment figure reflect the child's experience with attachment figures.
5. A child who has confidence in these expectations of availability of the attachment figure moves beyond separation anxiety to healthy exploration.

Bowlby thus views attachment and exploration as being in dynamic balance.

Ainsworth and her associates have explored the reciprocal relationship between attachment and exploration (Ainsworth and Bell, 1969; 1970; Ainsworth and Wittig, 1969). It was found that for one-year-old infants exploratory behavior occurred most frequently when the mother was present but sharply decreased when the mother was absent and/or a stranger was present. These studies thus demonstrated a complex covariation between attachment and exploration. The absence of the mother reverses this process so that exploration diminishes and separation anxiety or distress reactions increase. As the child grows older, he more naturally explores and separation anxiety diminishes.

As mentioned earlier, the child's basic affective skills arise through interaction with a caretaker. Higher order affective skills now appear as the child is able to leave his caretaker and interact with his environment and other persons. Exploration is the precursor to the emergence of curiosity and mastery. By separating himself from his caretaker, the infant increases his opportunities to interact with his environment. He thus becomes more familiar with his environment and increases the likelihood of adaptation to it.

Self-Concept

The construct self-concept, which by definition proceeds from an internal frame of reference, has lent itself to many different conceptualizations. Most theorists agree that it is a set of beliefs about one's physical self and one's behavior. There is also some agreement that self-concept has its basis in the roles an individual is required to take and the individual's feelings about his own body.

The sense of self apparently develops very gradually beginning about the time the infant is able to differentiate between himself and the world around him. The infant's first experience of himself is an amorphous sense of well-being or discomfort. As the infant's ability to differentiate between sensations and events and between himself and his environment increases, the groundwork is laid for the development of the self-concept. In our conceptualization, discovery of the physical self represents the first stage of emergence of self. Next would come recognition of caretaker and this recognition proceeds from simple interest to playfulness to clear recognition. At ten months of age the infant demonstrates recognition of himself in a mirror. As language is acquired, the child learns to represent his experience and order his mental processes. As his memory function develops, he is able to hold more information about his experience and thus form expectations for himself. As others label him and evaluate his actions he begins to judge himself. His self-concept thus becomes the composite of all his past experiences and feelings, his self expections, evaluations imposed by others, and attitudes formed by himself.

Various theorists have attempted to deal with the development of self-concept. In Freudian terms the self-concept is analogous to the ego, which begins to develop during infancy, as it becomes necessary for some reality principle to mediate between the infant's hedonistic desires and the environment. The ego is the executive of the personality system, determining modes of expression and facilitating reaction. Harry Stack Sullivan, a neo-Freudian, theorized that self-concept developed from reflected appraisals of significant others in the child's life. He posited three modes of experience: (1) prototaxic, (2) parataxic, and (3) syntaxic. In his view, it is necessary for the child to develop beyond the undifferentiated view of himself and the world (prototaxic) and the illogical, individualistic view of events around him (parataxic) before he can form a realistic concept of himself and hold a consensually validated view of the world (syntaxic).

Jean Piaget stresses the importance of the child acquiring the cognitive skills prerequisite to conceptualization of himself and his experience and subsequently to the formation of a self-concept. Similarly, Jersild, (1975) stresses the cognitive component of the self in addition to the affective state and the self evaluative and attitudinal components.

Self theorists have written extensively about the self. Combs and Snygg (1959) have made a major contribution to the understanding of self-concept. Their phenomenological orientation stresses the importance of observing behavior from the point of view of the individual himself. The private world or life space in which the individual experiences an event becomes the determinant of the event. Self-concept is, then, a highly personal expression that has developed through the individual's experience and interpretation of his experience. Several other recent psychologists, such as Rogers, Lewin, and Maslow, also subscribe to phenomenological views.

In a developmental sense parents perform the primary role in the development of self-concept. This is because both parents serve as the primary socialization agents in the child's early life. They, thus, assist in the process of the child's developing an image of his body and also provide the first feedback regarding the child's actions. In fact, there is considerable correspondence between a child's self evaluation and the way he is regarded by his parents (Khon, 1961). Later, the child receives feedback from his siblings, peers and others and this feedback assists him in refining his perceptions of himself.

Most theorists talk about the value of positive self-concepts, but given the roles many children are forced to play in our society, a positive self-concept may be unattainable. Perhaps a "realistic" self-concept should be more valued.

Socialization

Socialization refers to (1) acquisition of social skills and social reponsiveness and (2) learning of social and personal controls. Social responsiveness emerges at a very young age, notably at the first social smile, but develops into more complex response patterns as the child grows.

The infant is capable of recognizing human faces and responding with a smile or distress reaction, while the five-year-old is capable of verbal acknowledgments and complex activities such as games. Infants and young children gradually develop skills that enable them to interact in more specific modes. For instance, they learn how to get the attention of others, they learn how to make requests, and they learn how to respond to others with increasing facileness. The learning of social and personal controls begins as the mother and other caregivers impose demands on the infant, for instance at the toilet training stage. As the child grows older, these demands become internalized and he learns how to exercise control over his own activities

Socialization is an extremely important developmental process. Infants raised without social contact (feral infants) manifest behaviors that are extremely different from normal infants. They fail to develop any language skills and may not even stand upright. The human infant is more dependent on caregivers and dependent for a longer period of time than the infants of all other animal species. Human infants are less capable at birth than most other animal infants and their development is more complex and requires a much longer time period. It is crucial to the human infant's survival that a caretaker attend to his physical needs and teach him social interaction skills.

Socialization begins with the caretaker-infant relationship and subsequent patterns of interaction are influenced by the nature of this first relationship. The infant's first signs of social responsiveness are directed at his primary caregiver and she is the first individual with whom a social relationship is formed. The caregiver is also the first person to impose demands on the infant.

The young child comes into contact with several socializing agents who structure his interaction with his environment. Initially, his caretaker and family members teach him some of the rules of behavior. He later is exposed to peers and outside agencies such as pre-school and elementary school. The infant and young child thus gradually acquires standards for behavior by exposure to demands. At first, his behavior is under external control but he later internalizes standards for behavior and learns how to delay gratification. In Freudian terms, the infant moves from a stage in which his id (instinctual, pleasure-seeking force) dominates to a stage in which his super-ego emerges and begins to place controls on the id.

Up until recently the most popular explanation of the development of social behavior was the secondary drive theory. According to this view the infant seeks proximity with others because they acquire secondary reinforcing characteristics. That is, people become reinforcing since they meet the infant's primary needs for food and shelter. The infant's emotional dependence on others thus stems from the gratification of physical needs. Harlow's primate studies (Harlow and Harlow, 1966) have cast considerable doubt on this theory since they have demonstrated the importance of contact comfort in the caretaker-infant relationship.

According to Erikson (1956) the socialization process moves through eight stages: (1) learning trust versus mistrust, (2) learning autonomy versus shame, (3) learning initiative versus guilt, (4) learning industry versus inferiority, (5) learning identity versus identity diffusion, (6) learning intimacy versus isolation, (7) learning generativity versus self-absorption, and (8) learning integrity versus despair. Erikson was greatly influenced by Freudian theory but, in his own theory, places greater emphasis on social forces (rather than Freud's sexual forces). Erikson's stages are regarded as psychosocial crises, each of which must be resolved before the individual can meet the next one.

According to Schaffer (1971) there are three sequential achievements an infant must accomplish if he is to attain mature social behavior: the differentiation of human beings as a class apart from the rest of the environment, the recognition of certain individuals as familiar, and the formation of specific attachments. Schaffer chooses not to explain social development in terms of drives but rather to conceive of sociability as originating in the infant's perceptual encounters with other people. He stresses the interrelatedness of cognition and social behavior and the reciprocity of social behavior.

Theories of socialization thus differ in the types of drives they consider important to the socialization process and the extent to which these drives are emphasized or de-emphasized. There can be no doubt, however, that socialization serves many important functions for the developing infant, from providing him with food and shelter to preparing him for adaptation to a complex society. The caretaker-infant relationship is the first meaningful social contact for the infant and sets the stage for subsequent relationships. The infant and young child gradually develops more complex social skills and control of behavior shifts from an external to an internal frame.

Conclusion

We have talked about the important dimensions of affective development in normal children. Before we move to a discussion of affective development in handicapped children we will use our review to speculate on the kinds of affective skills possessed by a child of five who might be classified as being affectively competent. If we were to use a behavior checklist and observe the child in the natural environment, we might observe the following behaviors:

1. The child would emit positive and negative responses freely.
2. The child would discriminate easily between caretaker and significant others.
3. The child would demonstrate a secure attachment relationship to one person.
4. The child would initiate social interaction with peers or adults.
5. The child would display and recognize in others five or six basic emotions.
6. The child would get and maintain the attention of adults in socially acceptable ways.
7. The child would demonstrate cooperative play and sharing with sibling or peers.

8. The child would demonstrate respect for the rights of others.
9. The child would demonstrate appropriate responses to negative situations.
10. The child would praise himself and show pride in his accomplishments.
11. The child would demonstrate knowledge of sex role in play activities.
12. The child would accurately depict his skill level in four or five major areas.

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Chapter II

AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT IN HANDICAPPED PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

OVERVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the development of the handicapped preschool child according to five dimensions: (1) Emergence of Self (Physical, Cognition, Affective), (2) Caretaker Attachment, (3) Adaptation-Mastery, (4) Self-Concept, and (5) Socialization.

The six handicapping conditions spoken to in this chapter are as follows: (1) the emotionally disturbed, (2) the speech impaired, (3) hearing impaired and deaf, (4) the physically handicapped, (5) the mentally retarded, and (6) the blind and partially seeing. Within each section the course of development will be outlined according to the five dimensions with the emphasis on noting those areas in which affective development does not proceed as in normals. It should be mentioned at this point that a paucity of research on affective development in handicapped children made this a difficult task.

AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT IN MENTALLY RETARDED

As defined in the current American Association of Mental Deficiency's Manual on Terminology and Classification, "Mental retardation refers to sub-average general intellectual functioning which originates during the developmental period and is associated with impairment in adaptive behavior" (Heber, 1961). Mental retardation is thus the condition which accounts for the lower end of the curve of intellectual abilities. Mental retardation is not a clear-cut and well defined condition. Rather, it is a construct that is defined in terms of normative data and inferred on the basis of psychometric tests.

The body of literature relating to affective development in the mentally retarded is suprisingly scant. Only in the past decade have there been concerted efforts to study affect in infancy. This interest probably stems from an emerging view that affect in the young child enhances cognitive development (Sroufe and Waters, 1976) and provides the infant with a highly adaptive communication system (Stechler and Carpenter, 1967). Placed in the context of our developmental dimensions the following pages may serve as a summary of affective development in the mentally retarded.

Emergence of Self

The primary characteristic of the retarded child is his slower learning rate (Zigler, 1973). We may thus expect the mentally retarded child to engage in both reflexive and flexing behaviors in utero but at later stages than do normal children. Since many mentally retarded infants (an example being Downs Syndrome infants) are hypotonic (Coleman, 1973), we may expect physical activity to occur less often both in utero and in vivo. Discovery of the hands and coordination of movements of the eyes, mouth, fingers, and legs are, thus, not effected as quickly in the retarded infant as in the normal infant.

While smiling, increased vocalization, and increased bodily activity emerge during the third and fourth months in normal infants, their appearance is delayed in the retarded infant. Cicchetti and Sroufe (1976) found in a sample of 14 Downs syndrome infants that the medium onset of laughter was 10 months. This delay also results in a delay in the retarded child's capacity to develop an adaptive communication system.

The retarded child's ability to conceptualize the existence of an object when the object is not in sight proceeds at a slower rate than for the normal child. Activities such as holding, mouthing, visual inspection, biting, shaking, and examining have been observed to occur at later stages in retarded children than in normals (Cowie, 1970). We may thus infer that while the normal child begins to acquire a sense of object permanence by nine or ten months of age, the retarded child acquires this concept much later.

Caretaker Attachment

The first research to address caretaker attachment noted there was a progressive retardation in infant's functioning when separated from their caretaker (Spitz, 1945). Since then, the importance of caretaker attachment in the development of the mentally retarded has received a great deal of attention.

Crucial to the formation of caretaker attachment is the development of a communication system. In the retarded child this communication system usually begins to emerge at a later point in time than it does in the normal child. Behaviors such as smiling, laughing, fear reactions, and gazing behavior which enhance the attachment process are usually delayed in the retarded infant. A delay in the appearance of these behaviors affects the mother also (Schaffer and Emerson, 1964). When the infant appears unresponsive it may adversely affect the mother's response to the infant.

When the retarded infant does develop a communication exchange with the caretaker, and especially if the caretaker is responsive, the infant may become very dependent on the caretaker. A cycle noted in some instances of mental retardation is for the child to be dependent and for the caretaker to be overprotective. Unless some intervention is provided, this cycle may be deleterious to further growth and development.

Adaptation

As mentioned earlier, when an infant develops an attachment to a caretaker and becomes confident that the caretaker will always be available, exploratory behavior increases. For the severely retarded child, institutionalization usually precludes the development of an attachment relationship that is sufficient to stimulate adaptation to and mastery of the environment. Indeed, studies by Spitz (1945), Pasamanick (1946), Dennis (1960), and Sternlicht and Siegel (1968) uniformly demonstrate the devasting effects of institutionalization on affective development. Centerwall and Centerwall (1960) compared groups of: (1) 32 hospitalized mongoloid children who were hospitalized at birth, (2) 32 hospitalized mongoloid children who were not hospitalized at birth and (3) hospitalized children who had spend the first two and one-half years at home. They found that both intellectual and social functioning were significantly higher in the home raised group. It seems clear that depriving the infant of a caretaker at an early age exacts a severe penalty in terms of later development.

For the retarded child who remains at home the picture is brighter. Other than the constraints imposed by his slower rate of development, it has been aptly demonstrated that the retarded child does respond to a stimulating environment and can learn mastery of his environment. However, Webster (1963) reports the quality of development suffers. He holds that ... "despite the fact that there is sufficient differentiation to pass developmental milestones at a rather consistant rate, close observation reveals that there is only a superficial resemblance to normal emotional development.... this particular style of ego development is accompanied by special descriptive features: a non-psychotic autism, repetitiousness, inflexibility, passivity and simplicity in emotional life." (p. 30.)

Forty years ago, H. M. Skeels produced the first definitive evidence that early stimulation enhances development in the handicapped child. He compared young retardates, half of which remained institutionalized and half of which were placed in stimulating environments. The mean I.Q. for the 13 experimental subjects moved from 64 in the pretest to 101 in the post-test session. Gains were not as dramatic in the control subjects who either remained institutionalized or died. Since then, numerous studies have been conducted which lead to some general conclusions:

1. Parent-child intervention results in substantial gains in I.Q. The magnitude of the gains is inversely related to the age at which the child enters a stimulation program (Karnes, 1968; Lavenstein, 1972; Stanford Res. Inst., 1971; and Heber, 1971).
2. The effects of these gains are cumulative from year to year (Gordon, 1973).
3. Parental intervention benefits both target children and other siblings (Klaus and Gray, 1968).

In view of this data, Bronfenbrenner (1975) feels our future course is clear. That is, an increasing number of programs which train parents in stimulation techniques should be developed, since their effectiveness has been clearly demonstrated.

Self-Concept

Research on the development of the self-concept in retarded children is plentiful. Again, the evidence is an indictment of institutionalization. Beginning with Goldfarb's (1944) series of studies the evidence continues to accumulate that institutionalization retards the development of a sense of self, results in greater negative attitudes towards the self, and severely limits the ability to form positive identifications with others.

Webster (1963) has commented that the retarded child has a poorly developed sense of self which stems from a disturbance in ego development. He further sees this as resulting in an immature or infantile character structure.

For the retarded child who remains at home the development of self-concept seems to proceed through the same stages as for normals except at a slower pace. However, because our society views the retarded child in an essentially negative fashion, the retarded child is predisposed to develop a concept of self which is negative.

Socialization

Since most people agree that the socialization process is largely a function of interaction with others, the mentally retarded child begins this process with a handicap. The child's slower rate of development immediately places restrictions on transactions with people. Deprived of a "rich" social environment by limited communication abilities and by the reactions of others toward him, the retarded child many times fails to acquire the repertoire of social behaviors which would allow him to be more successful in social intercourse. Bijou (1970) has commented ....

> "A sparse social environment not only reduces the frequency of social reinforcing stimuli, it limits the opportunities for a child to engage in programmed activities that result in discriminations normally expected in his particular culture ...." (p. 153.)

The institutionalized child usually suffers to a greater degree in terms of a restricted social environment than does the child reared at home. In both cases, the lack of opportunities to acquire social skills and to learn personal and social controls restrict most retarded children's ability to have a direct impact on their social environment. Rather, the retarded child is forced many times to interact with his social environment through indirect means. These indirect means may include tantrums and other acting out behaviors which have caused many people to say that most retarded children have behavior problems.

The technology of behavior modification has been effectively used to address the problem of socialization of retarded children. Proponents of this technology have also been active in structuring social environments which facilitate the development of a social repertoire in retarded children.

Summary

The affective development of the retarded child is characterized by its slower rate when compared to that of normals. Emergence of self and caretaker attachment proceed at slower rates and the quality of development suffers. Important also are the restricted opportunities for stimulation through contact with others. Retarded children also suffer from a poorly developed sense of self and are slower in developing social interaction skills. Engineering a richer environment and expanding early stimulation activities will offer the retarded child a brighter prognosis in the future.

AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT IN THE HEARING IMPAIRED AND DEAF

Introducion

It is the purpose of this section to outline affective development of the severely hearing impaired child and the deaf child. There is a substantial body of research examining development of communication in the deaf child and the impact of deafness upon personality adjustment. Findings, in general, have indicated that deaf children are somewhat more poorly adjusted, rigid, immature, and neurotic than normals (Schudt and Schudt, 1972). These authors feel, however, that "... one must be cautious in interpreting or attributing meaning to these findings because the reviewers indicate that most of the earlier research reflects methodological limitations such as inadequate controls, poor sampling, inadequate descriptions of samples, and questionable diagnostic tools with unstandardized measurement criteria (1972, p. 352). What research there is reports that deaf children show evidence of more abnormal personality characteristics than do normals. The question becomes one of considering why this is the case. Levine (1965) suggests that the findings to not necessarily imply psychopathology resulting from deafness. Rather, they can be interpreted as providing normative data on a minority group who live in a different environment and do not have the language and other skills required for normal personality development.

Emergence of Self

The deaf child suffers from no physical deficits that would hamper his discovery of physical self. His tactile senses, which are most important to the process of self-discovery are intact and, as far as is known, his discovery of physical self proceeds normally.

The deaf child may, however, have problems learning to communicate effectively. Since he cannot hear he is unable to respond to auditory cues from those around him and problems in communication may arise. The parents' attempts to communicate with their deaf child may lead to frustration on their part and this, in turn, may exacerbate problems in communication. As there are no studies which specifically examine this phenomenon we cannot be sure how profoundly deafness affects the learning of affective communication at this early stage. Schlesinger and Meadow (1972), who are well known for their research on deafness, conclude that "...during this early stage the parents and experts who make up the external environment clearly suffer from the auditory deficit of the infant; it is unclear how much the infant suffers, directly and indirectly, but the impact of the deficit becomes clearer in the stages that follow" (1972, p. 13). The deaf child probably needs special training in communcation skills if he is to proceed as normally as possible through subsequent developmental stages.

Caretaker Attachment

Schlesinger and Meadow (1972) have reviewed the literature on relationships between parents and deaf children and made significant research contributions. There is much evidence to suggest that different parental opinions and child rearing modes have different effects upon the developing deaf child.

Literature on the birth of defective children clearly indicates that their normal mothers go through stages of guilt, sorrow, mourning, and anger, which may well interfere with stable, warm relations with their infants (Wright, 1960). Parents of deaf children are no exception to this rule.

Schlesinger and Meadow (1972) report on an observational study of deaf and normal children and their mothers in which child rearing practices, parental personality characteristics, and other process variables were related to the child's communicative competence. They found the behaviors of mothers of nonhearing children to differ radically from that of mothers of normals. Differential patterns were especially pronounced when the deaf child lagged behind his peers in the development of viable means of communication. In these instances, mothers were more likely to appear inflexible, controlling, didactic, intrusive, and disapproving. Mothers of deaf children also had feelings of frustration regarding mother-child communication. The authors conclude that "... children's capabilities and behavior exert tremendous influence on the interactional style exhibited by the mother. This effect is both reciprocal and cumulative, with communicative deficit leaving its mark on every major area of child-rearing practices, and on the expressive and instrumental styles of both mothers and children" (Schlesinger and Meadow, 1972, p. 110).

An interesting study of Meadow (1967) compared deaf parents of children to normal parents of deaf children. On all the ratings of emotional adjustment employed in this study children with deaf parents were better adjusted. The greater adjustment among children with deaf parents was attributed to the deaf parent's relative ease of accepting deafness within their children or to the early communication existing between the deaf children and their parents through manual sign language.

Separation from the attachment figure was delayed for deaf children since the parents may be overprotective of their handicapped children. This is less true, however, of deaf parents of deaf children.

Altogether these studies seem to indicate that the caretaker relationship for deaf children may be impoverished by the nature of the child's handicap and the mother's subsequent frustration in trying to communicate with her child. There is some evidence, however, which suggests that this may not be the case when the deaf child's parents are deaf also.

Adaptation-Mastery

It is most likely that the deaf child does not move as quickly or aptly through the adaptation-mastery stage as his normal peers. First of all, there is some evidence that deaf children are not encouraged to explore as much as are normal children. Schlesinger and Meadow (1972) found that mothers of deaf differed from mothers of normals in that they constantly supervised the child to protect him from accidents.

Schlesinger and Meadow (1972) also found that deaf children showed less pride in mastery than either their deaf peers with more communication skills or than hearing children. Reasons for the difference are not clear, however.

Another reason for the deaf child's lag in the development of mastery is his poor communication skills. It is normal at this stage for children to ask questions and receive replies about events and objects in the world around them. Deaf children, however, are hampered in this respect. Also, deaf children cannot explore the environment as thoroughly as normals since they lack the sense of audition. It is not difficult to understand, in view of these variables, that the development of competency is retarded in deaf children.

Self-Concept

Since deaf children are often subjected to less than warm and fulfilling mother-infant relationships and since they do not move as easily as normals through the adaptation-mastery step, it follows that they will have a poor self-concept. Blanton and Nunnally (1964) administered the Semantic Differential to deaf and normal school age children. Deaf boys tended to see themselves, another handicapped group (i.e., blind), and their parents as being less well adjusted and less good than did normal boys. The deaf girls also saw themselves and their parents as less good while also seeing themselves as less well adjusted. Meadow (1969) compared self-images of deaf children with hearing parents and deaf children with deaf parents. Results indicated that deaf children with deaf parents manifested more positive self-images than deaf children with hearing parents. Moreover, self-images of children with deaf parents seemed to improve when the family climate was more positive and when the child's level of school performance and communication skills were at higher levels. It appears as if deaf children in general have poor self-concepts. The self-concept improves for children with better communication skills and for children of deaf parents.

Socialization

Schlesinger and Meadow (1972) contend that the primary handicap imposed by early childhood deafness is that it jams and weakens communication between the child and others in his environment. The deaf child cannot respond as readily to the interaction initiated by others and the child does not receive the gratification he needs from his efforts to communicate. The deaf child needs special training in communication skills if he is to have meaningful contact with others.

In a study comparing deaf girls to hearing girls (Levine, 1956), the deaf girls were characterized by a substantial lag in understanding the dynamics of interpersonal relationships and a rigid adherence to the book-of-etiquette code rather than inner sensibility as standards for behaving and even for feeling. Deaf children, thus, showed less social responsiveness and their standards of social control were not as well internalized as those of normals.

It seems to be the case, then, that deaf children suffer a serious setback to formation of social relationships and may have difficulty in grasping social standards.

Summary

In general, research has found deaf children to be less well-adjusted than normals. One researcher warns, however, that these results must be viewed as providing normative data on a minority group who live in an atypical environment because of their impairment (Levine, 1965). An interesting study by Meadow (1967) found that deaf children of deaf parents were better adjusted than deaf children of hearing parents, suggesting that deaf parents' ability to accept the impairment and communicate with the child at an early age may positively influence his emotional adjustment. Other research has shown that normal parents of deaf children manifest feelings of frustration over parent-child communication and may be more protective of their deaf child's affective growth and adjustment. The deaf child's impairment in and of itself does seem to hinder his development in some respects. Problems in communication interfere with the formation of caretaker and other relationships. Also, his adaptation to and mastery of the environment proceeds at a slower rate than in the normal child since he cannot employ audition in exploring his environment. It also seems to be the case that deaf children have poorer self-concepts than normals.

AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT IN THE BLIND AND PARTIALLY SEEING

Visual handicaps are usually seen as encompassing two categories: blind and partially seeing. The major distinction made between these two categories is that "blind" includes those children with 20/200 vision or less in the better eye, while "partially seeing" is defined as including those children whose visual acuity is between 20/200 and 20/70 in the better eye.

Many factors limit normal visual development in both blind and partially sighted. Hewett (1974) has listed the following causal factors:

1. Refractive errors
2. Structural defects
3. Muscle defects
4. Eye infection or injury
5. Undetermined pre-natal
6. Poisoning
7. Infectious diseases
8. Injuries

In addition, whether a child is congentially blind or whether the blindness occurs after birth has important implications since visual imagery is an important tool in conceptualizing the world. The incidence of blindness in infancy has been sharply reduced through the prevention of ophtholmia neonatorium (through use of silver nitrate) and retrolental fibrosplasia (by reducing amount of oxygen given premature infants).

The blind infant is extremely dependent upon others. This dependency is both biological and psychological. Robbed of one of his most important senses, the infant has to learn to rely on other senses to order and structure his world. For the blind infant, sensory deprivation becomes an enemy from birth. This deprivation has important implications for almost every developmental milestone.

Emergence of Self

Although blind children exhibit appropriate reflex actions shortly after birth, discovery of their bodies proceeds essentially through tactile channels. Indeed, this discovery process may result in the blind infants acquiring certain body postures and hand movements which are typical of autistic children (van Dijk, 1968). In a study done in 1968, Pratty and Sams found that for the blind child, awareness of body movements is easily acquired. Awareness of body parts and laterality and directionality of movement seem to be the most difficult tasks. This requires being able to locate the self in space without appropriate visual cues.

Blind infants have been observed to demonstrate the same developmental sequence as normal infants in the appearance of basic emotions. While their range of affect does not appear to be as great, they do emit the appropriate basic emotions. Friedman (1964) for example, presents evidence that the blind child smiles at the appropriate times and with appropriate body movements. What is inhibited in the blind child are behaviors which elicit responses from others. This in a sense forces him to rely on physical contact and verbalizations to communicate.

Wolff(1966) has commented on the blind child's lack of knowledge about the permanence of objects as representing an important consequence of having little or no vision. He speculated that the blind child is delayed also in acquiring concepts of space, time and causality. For the normal infant, objects appear and disappear from his field of vision without having any permanence until the age of about 9 months. He then begins to demonstrate his knowledge of their existence by reaching for them when they are not in sight. In the normal child both vision and touch are important in developing this concept. In the blind infant touch is available but a substitute modality has to be employed for vision. It seems crucial that in facilitating the development of object permanence in blind infants that they be stimulated to utilize a variety of senses in exploring the environment.

Caretaker Attachment

The blind infants complete biological dependence on a caretaker has important implications for the development of caretaker attachment. Important also is the development of a communication system that does not depend on vision. Contact and cuddling along with the use of vocalizations appear to enhance the development of a blind infant's attachment to a caretaker. Important also is the degree of stimulation given the infant by the caretaker. This amount of stimulation is important because the blind infant does not respond in the expected fashion and the mother may reduce her attempts to stimulate the infant as a direct consequence of the infant's lack of response. In addition, Sandler (1963) reports that in any blind child there will be a pull toward self centeredness. This has a potentially limiting effect on the development of a strong attachment. Fraiberg (1972) in discussing "separation crisis" in two blind children presents evidence that attachment occurs later in blind children than in normal children. She has also commented on the extended period of the separation crisis in blind children.

Adaptation-Mastery

The obstacles to mastering an environment one cannot see are tremendous. Nevertheless, mastery of the environment is a particularly important developmental goal for the blind infant.

White and Castle (1964) found that blind infants exhibit more exploratory behavior when they receive extra handling by adults. To further encourage the blind infant to master his environment a variety of approaches have been recommended. Langley (1961) encourages parents to facilitate all kinds of experimentation by the young child. Raynor (1975) has outlined a series of specific activities which parents can follow in stimulating the blind child to explore and master his environment.

Self-Concept

When the blind infant is able to distinguish himself from the world around him, the process of development of self-concept begins. As noted earlier, this process occurs later in the blind infant because of the sensory deprivation he has undergone. Also, the blind infant has to develop other modalities to use instead of vision to aid him in this process. Fraiberg (1964) holds that the constitution of a body and self image represents one of the most difficult developmental tasks for the blind child. Unless stimulated by others, the blind child is inclined to use his body in self-stimulating actions which are repulsive to many people. Jones (1967) has urged that the development of body concept in the blind should be fostered using imitation, tactual sensations, olfactory and gustatory sensations, and motor manipulation. Raynor (1975) believes the child's caretaker can foster the development of a sense of self through fostering independent exploration.

Socialization

Although there is evidence that the blind child develops close interpersonal relationships with his primary caretaker, the development of relationships with others in the environment is made much more difficult. Interpersonal relationships with peers are affected, as are relationships with siblings and other significant adults. Scott (1959) maintains that the blind child suffers through lack of ability to "keep up" with sighted peers. This is probably true, as is Wills' (1972) observation that young blind children withdraw from age adequate play and resort to simple activities unless stimulated by an outsider. In any event, the child's inability or unwillingness to interact with and imitate the roles of others poses problems in the socialization process. Wills (1972) presents a strong case for continual intervention by an adult to stimulate the blind child into moving from simple repetitive play and simple role play into more complex play activities.

Indeed, adults become increasingly important in sustaining a blind child's interactions with peers and in doing so inadvertantly provide models which result in the blind child's acquiring adult-like behavior patterns. Anastasiow and Hanes (1975) have suggested that a functional relationship exists between sex role identification and sex role behaviors. For the blind child such identifications are word dependent and therefore more difficult to make.

Summary

Affective development in the blind infant is closely tied to his biological dependence on a caretaker. The degree of stimulation offered by a caretaker as well as the amount of exploration and experimentation engaged in by the child affect both development of self-concept and socialization. For the blind child, perhaps more so than for any other handicapping condition, continual intervention by adults seems necessary for optimal development.

AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT IN THE SPEECH IMPAIRED

Introduction

Disorders of speech can be divided into four general categories: (1) voice disorders, (2) articulation disorders, (3) delayed speech, and (4) stuttering. Voice disorders simply involve aberrations in voice quality. Disorders of articulation refer to the omission, substitution, or distortion of speech sounds and are the most prevalent of speech disorders. This problem is usually explained in terms of learning problems, motoric problems, lack of adequate models, or lack of stimulation in speech. Delayed speech can be the result of either organic or psychogenic problems. Aphasic disorders of childhood may be classed in the category of delayed speech but actually represent disorders in symbolic functioning that may affect expressive and/or receptive language. In addition, neurologic or organic problems may be associated with aphasia. Stuttering, a disturbance in the smooth flow of speech, usually has its onset in the period between two and five years of age.

Speech impairments have their derivation in many sources. Deafness, cerebral palsy, and mental retardation are obvious problems which may seriously hamper speech development. Brain dysfunction, as in the case of aphasia, and obvious physical deformities, such as cleft plate, can also result in speech problems. Speech disorders have in some cases been associated with autistic and symbiotic psychosis. Emotional disturbance has often been found to correlate with speech disorder. Children with speech disorders may be emotionally disturbed and this disturbance may be the basis for their impaired speech. A discussion of how affective development may proceed in the speech impaired child follows.

Emergence of Self

Children with speech disorders do not necessarily suffer from distortions of their physical percept and, thus, do not show any evidence of difficulty in discovering their physical self.

Insofar as difficulties in the caretaker-child relationship may lead to speech disorders, problems may arise at this stage of development. There is, however, a lack of research on the early affective development of the speech disordered child.

Part of the affective communication that does arise at this stage involves sound utterances. If a child's voice apparatus is deficient or if some functional disorder blocks the production of sound utterances then the child must depend upon other modes of communication, such as physical signals. If he fails to develop the beginnings of speech at this time, the lag will probably manifest itself later in the form of delayed speech or an articulatory disorder.

Caretaker Attachment

Some, though not all studies on the subject, have found disturbances in parents' personalities to correlate with the presence of articulation disorders in children. Wood (1946a, 1946b) found for 50 parents of articulatory disordered children considerable emotional maladjustment of one or both parents, with more maladjustment found for mothers than for fathers. The data also showed that these parents were unaware of good child rearing practices and used overly severe discipline techniques. Studies by Berlin (1958) and Moll and Darley (1960) found poorer attitudes toward child rearing and development among parents of children with articulation problems. They also reported that the mothers of children with articulation disorders set higher standards of behavior for their children and were more critical of their activities. These studies imply that the mother-child relationship for children with articulation problems might not be as warm and accepting as most caretaker-child ties are. It cannot be assumed, however, that parents are the cause of the problem since other variables may have confounded the research, i.e., the parent's reaction to a speech impaired child. These studies further imply that the deficit originates in the mother, who may herself show emotional disturbance.

Studies of parents of children with delayed speech have also found disturbances in the caretaker-child relationship. Mothers of speech retarded children have been found to regard their children with more anxiety than parents of normal speaking children, and to anticipate their needs without verbal request (Beckey, 1942). Peckarsky (1953) found mothers of speech retarded children to be overprotective, rigid individuals who outwardly seem devoted to their children but were actually very critical of them. Moll and Darley (1960), however, found that mothers of speech delayed children differed from mothers of normal speaking children and of articulatory disordered children only in terms of offering their children less encouragement to talk.

In reviewing the literature on articulatory problems as a whole, Goodstein and Block (1972, p. 404-405) conclude that:

> "There appears to be some evidence indicating the etiological importance of parental personality, and even stronger evidence pointing to the role of parental personality and adjustment in children's speech improvement."

There thus seems to be a general feeling among researchers that parental personality factors play a significant role in contributing to children's speech disorders. Goodstein and Block (1972) found few or no differences between parents of stutterers and nonstutterers in their review of the topic. There is some evidence, however, to support the conclusion that stutterers' parents, while not maladjusted themselves, do tend to play a role in the development of stuttering, primarily through attitudes of criticalness and overprotection which may be implicitly conveyed to the child.

Adaptation-Mastery

Speech disordered children may suffer from a lack of environmental stimulation at or before the adaptation-mastery stage of development. Goodstein (1962, p. 401) has explained articulatory disorders as a failure in learning because of "inadequate speech models, a lack of stimulation in and motivation for adequate speech, or some other more basic emotional disturbance." It has also been established that the children of poor families begin to speak at a later age. Irwin (1960) demonstrated that talking to one-year-old children increases their vocabulary. Oftentimes, trauma, such as the birth of a new baby or a hospitalization, will show up as a loss of speech. On the other hand, Everhart (1953) found no significant differences between children with articulatory problems and normals with respect to the onset of each of the following: holding head up, crawling, sitting alone, walking, talking, and voluntary bladder control.

The preponderance of evidence does suggest, however, that a lack of environmental stimulation can hamper the development of speech.

Self-Concept

Studies of the self-concept in children with articulation problems have not yielded clear-cut data. Freeman and Sonnegal (1956) and Sherrill (1967) have researched social and self-perceptions of children with articulation problems. These children were perceived by others and by themselves as less effective in verbal communication skills, but as similar to their normal speaking peers in social acceptance characteristics. Sherrill noted, however, that degree of social acceptance appeared to decline with the increasing severity of the articulation problem. Goodstein and Block (1972), who reviewed studies on emotional adjustment in children with articulation disorders, concluded that the relationship between personality factors and articulation disorders has not been clearly established.

Goodstein and Block (1972) in their review of personality in the speech disordered, reported contradictory findings with regard to personality traits and emotional adjustment in the articulatory disordered child. They also found little evidence that the stuttering child has a particular pattern of personality or is severely maladjusted. Greater anxiety in interpersonal relationships and oversensitivity or compulsivity has been noted in stutterers but it is unclear whether these findings relate more to etiological or to expected consequential factors of stuttering. Goodstein and Block further note that there is a paucity of research on the effect of stuttering upon the child's self-perceptions.

It is difficult to state the exact relationship between the presence of speech disorders and a poor self-concept. Part of the difficulty follows from the wide spectrum of possible causes of speech disorders. If a speech disorder arises in conjunction with an impoverished environment then the probability is high that a poor self-concept will result. It has also been noted that there is a correlation between speech disorders resulting from physical deformity and a poor self-concept. Research has been unable to determine the origin of a poor self-concept when it is present in speech disordered children, however. That is, we do not know whether a speech impairment can damage one's self-concept or if a poor self-concept can manifest itself in the form of a speech disorder.

Socialization

If a child with a speech disorder has had difficulty communicating with his mother, he will probably also evidence difficulty in communicating with others and may, thus, be less responsive socially. If his speech disorder is not so severe that it hampers interpersonal communication, then the development of social relationships and the learning of social and personal controls may proceed as in normals.

Kessler (1966), in noting that it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between autism and aphasia, states that the determination rests mainly on the fact that aphasic children relate well to people. The aphasic responds to others, enjoys being with people, and is capable of genuine affection.

In the case of stuttering, however, the child's speech problem may become a social handicap, especially if the child is self-conscious about the problem. Goodstein and Block (1972, p. 411), in their review of personality patterns in children who stutter, conclude:

> "Greater anxiety in interpersonal relationships, with attendant symptoms of oversensitivity or compulsivity, has been noted in stutterers; but when considering the premium placed on early and affective verbal communication in our culture, it is unclear whether these findings relate more to etiological or to expected consequential factors in stuttering."

Care must be taken, then, in interpreting studies that find the stutterer to have problems relating to others. It is uncertain whether or not disruptions in social contact cause stuttering or are the result of stuttering.

Several studies have been carried out which examine social acceptance in speech disordered children. Perrin (1954), in an important sociometric study, found that more of the isolates came from the speech-affective group,and that the speech-defective child was not readily accepted into the classroom group. Lerea and Ward (1966) reported that children with articulation problems indicated greater reluctance to interact with others. In contrast, Freeman and Sonnega (1956) and Sherrill (1967) reported internally contradictory results in studies dealing with the social and self-perceptions of children with articulation problems. These children were perceived by others and by themselves as less effective in verbal communication skills, but as similar to their normal-speaking peers in social acceptance characteristics. Sherrill noted, however, that degree of social acceptance appeared to decline with increasing severity of articulation disorder.

There, thus, seems to be no one pattern of social responsiveness for speech-disordered children, although children with severe speech disorders are likely to experience problems in communication which may hamper the development of social relationships.

Summary

As has been seen, there are several different types of speech disorders and various causes of these disorders. Speech impairments can be noted when the child first begins to learn to vocalize or may not show up until later in childhood, as is sometimes the case with stuttering. Much research on the speech impaired has examined characteristics of the parents. There does seem to be a concensus among researchers that parental personality variables play a significant role in contributing to children's speech disorders although this cannot be stated for certain at this time. Similarly, a correlation has been found between a poor self-concept and some speech disorders. Again, the directionality of this correlation has not been ascertained. No one pattern of development of social relationships has been found to exist in speech-disordered children, although severe speech disorders may interfere with the development of relationships. It is apparent that more research is required to understand the affective development of the speech impaired and the origin of speech disorders.

AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT IN THE PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED

Introduction

Physical handicaps can include a wide range of disorders, from heart disease to cerebral palsy, making the physically handicapped an extremely heterogeneous group. Some of the various physical handicaps are: cerebral palsy, muscular dystrophy, poliomyelitis, cardiac defects, anomalies of physique, diabetes, rubella syndrome, and a few other disorders.

There are different causes of physical handicaps and diverse medical treatments, also. Cerebral palsy is the result of a cerebral lesion and generally manifests itself in three forms or combinations of these forms: spastic, athethoid, and ataxic. Cerebral palsy has received much attention of late from researchers and educational innovators. Poliomyelitis is on the decline since the invention of the Salk vaccine and no longer strikes as many children as it had previously. The level of medical sophistication that has been reached in this era has also allowed for the correction of some congenital defects in physique and even in heart function.

A discussion of how affective development proceeds in the physically handicapped follows.

Emergence of Self

Impairment that may occur at this stage is dependent upon the type and degree of the handicap. In order for the discovery of physical self to proceed normally a child must be able to manipulate body parts and receive sensory feedback from these parts. A child with a severe physical deformity or a child who has been immobilized by early surgery will, of course, be limited in the amount of physical activity he can engage in and his self-discovery will be delayed. Sensory deficits (common in rubella) which are more central to discovery of physical self, such as an impairment in vision, will cause greater delay in self-discovery than less crucial sensory problems, such as deafness. Also, if a child has incomplete reflex function, his discovery of self will be retarded.

The physically handicapped child may have difficulty during this stage in that handicaps may thwart affective communication, directly or indirectly. For instance, a handicapped child may not be able to cling when his mother picks him up or the mother's feelings about her handicapped child may interfere with her ability to display affection for the child. Delays in this stage of development usually manifest themselves in more pronounced problems at later stages.

The physically handicapped child may also have problems in grasping the permanence of objects. In order for object permanence to be achieved, an infant must reach a certain level of cognitive readiness and must attend to objects in his environment. For instance, White and Castle (1964) have found that infants in the first few weeks of life exhibited more visual exploratory behavior when they received extra handling by adults than infants not exposed to this treatment. Since it is not unusual for handicapped children to receive less handling than normals they might engage in less visual exploration than normal infants. Visual exploration is a necessary part of the development of object permanence. But if any physical or sensory processes are impaired the infant would most likely proceed more slowly through this stage than do normal infants.

Caretaker Attachment

Physically handicapped children are highly susceptible to impoverished caretaker-child relationships. Their defects are usually obvious and parental admiration is, thus, not as easily cultivated. Literature on the birth of defective children clearly indicates that their normal mothers go through stages of guilt, sorrow, mourning, and anger, which may well interfere with stable, warm relations with their infants (Wright, 1960). A study of cerebral palsied children revealed that their parents evidenced some embarrassment for having a handicapped child (Hopkins, et. al., 1954). Similarly, parents of children with cardiac limitations displayed ambivalent attitudes of simultaneous acceptance and rejection (Wrightstone et. al., 1953). Parents of handicapped children most certainly carry an extra burden. They may expect to be blamed for their child's difficulties and they may be worried about the demands to be placed on their financial resources, their time, strength, and emotional involvement (Wright, 1960). These parental feelings do not go unperceived by the child. Children with cardiac limitations whose parents felt both acceptance and rejection responded with immaturity and a need for greater stimulation (Wrightstone, 1953). The child with polio has been found to manifest increased irritability as a direct result of his condition (Copellman, 1944).

Also, if a child must be frequently hospitalized these separations will interfere with the formation of a strong attachment between caretaker and child.

Separation may not proceed normally in the physically handicapped since their handicaps may render them more helpless than the normal child.

Parents may be more fearful of allowing their handicapped children to separate from them, also. For instance, mothers of girls with congenital heart disease were found to score higher on "intrusiveness" and "fostering dependency" than mothers of normals (Reed, 1959.)

Adaptation-Mastery

The physically handicapped child's development at this stage can suffer serious setbacks that may arise from a variety of difficulties which he is subject to.

Children with polio or physical deformities simply cannot move about as freely as normal children. Children who must undergo surgery or remain in the hospital for prolonged periods are deprived of environmental stimulation. The more physically handicapped they are the less they are able to gain exposure to their environment. Sensory deficits will also block environmental stimulation. For instance, rubella children are often visually handicapped and cerebral palsied children may have impaired tactile senses. Restriction in mobility will, of course, restrict background experiences.

If a child is delayed in motor development he will similarly be restricted in mobility. A study of cerebral palsied children found them to have a mean delay of from 4.1 months to 27 months in developing skills such as sitting, standing, walking, and talking (Wolfe and Reid, 1958). These delays will show up at this stage as impediments to successful adaptation and mastery of the environment. In reference to cerebral palsied children Oswin (1967, p. 10) has stated:

> "This lack of normal development during the early years of the baby is found to have an effect upon his later growth, physically, mentally, and psychologically. He cannot explore his environment and learn what is in it, learning what is harmful and what is safe, the size and texture of objects

> and their manipulative possibilities. Life is rather frightening and full of unknown things to him; he may be unable to crawl away from things or crawl after them; he may be unable to pick objects up, suck them and learn about them by feeling. He is at the mercy of everything and everybody, and seldom in control of the situation."

Parents of the handicapped are often overprotective of their children (Wright, 1960). If parents are fearful of allowing their children to move about freely and to engage in a variety of experiences, exploration will be discouraged and adaptation-mastery will be delayed.

Self-Concept

The physically handicapped are, for many reasons, highly susceptible to feelings of inferiority and devaluation.

The developmental failures they have experienced may leave them with a sense of defeat. Their parents may feel "disappointed" and these feelings, which may be covertly communicated to the child, will then become incorporated into the child's self-concept. A study of the expert opinion of professional workers with the handicapped revealed that feelings of inferiority headed the list of behavior characteristics mentioned by 26 authors in general articles about the handicapped (Barker, et. al., 1946).

Cultural attitudes toward obvious physical defects also affect the child's view of himself. According to Wright (1960, p. 14):

> "Physical limitations per se may produce suffering and frustration, but the limitations imposed by the evaluative attitudes toward physique are far deeper and spread far wider; they affect the person's feelings about himself as a whole. One of man's basic strivings is for acceptance by the group, for being important in the lives of others, and for having others count positively in his life. As long as physical disability is linked with shame and inferiority, realistic acceptance of one's position and one's self is precluded."

An impoverishment in the caretaker-child relationship may also contribute to a poor self-concept. Since there is a positive relationship between self-acceptance and felt acceptance (Wright, 1960), a child who does not feel warmth and acceptance from his mother will not as easily accept himself. Parental caring and concern has been shown to be highly important in fostering positive feelings in children. In an important study by Langdon and Stout (1951) on well-adjusted children, it was discovered that despite tremendous differences in the background and physical characteristics of these children, many of which could be considered as social or physical handicaps, there was one outstanding similarity: the children were loved by their parents in an atmosphere of warm though not necessarily demonstrative acceptance.

It thus seems to be the case that physically handicapped children are more prone to poor self-concepts than normal children, although a warm and accepting family environment can do much to prevent the formation of a poor self-concept.

Socialization

Problems the physically handicapped child may encounter in making social contact stem from a negative self-concept and/or negative evaluations by others. Wright (1960) in examining personal accounts of physical handicaps, concluded that the expectations of physically handicapped individuals depended upon how they felt about themselves, their self-concept. When they viewed their disability with shame and derision, they could expect only that from others. When they were able to accept their disability more fully, it became sensible that others would view them as self-respecting, worthwhile, and even admirable. A complex relationship can exist between self-concept and social evaluations, such that each may be influenced by and may influence the other. Wright (1960) contends that instead of identity of treatment serving as a guide to social behavior, the person with a disability and those around him should think rather in terms of how the person can best participate. Creative solutions to the question of how handicapped children can be included in activities may benefit their self-concept and facilitate positive social evaluations of them. Impoverishment in social relationships in the physically handicapped may also interfere with the learning of social and personal controls.

Waldrop and Halverson (1973) studied behavioral concommitants to minor physical anomalies in preschoolers. They found that boys with physical anomalies seemed to have trouble with inner controls -- they were active, frenetic, unable to wait, intractable, and had poor motor control. Girls with the same anomalies were variable in their behavior, with some girls evidencing fast-moving behavior and others showing immobility. It thus seemed to be the case, at least for boys, that physical anomalies were associated with poor inner controls. According to the authors, it is plausible to think in terms of the neurological substrate for control of impulsive behavior as developing at the same time as these minor anomalies develop. It may also be possible that social evaluations imposed both by the individual and others, may contribute to atypical behavior patterns.

In general then, physically handicapped children may have difficulty in social relationships due to a poor self-concept and/or negative evaluations by others. Problems may or may not also occur in the learning of social and personal controls.

Summary

Since physical handicaps comprise a wide range of disorders, physically handicapped children are an extremely heterogeneous group. Physical and sensory deficits may inhibit the handicapped child's discovery of his physical self and his ability to understand the permanence of objects. Physically handicapped children are especially susceptible to impoverished caretaker-child relationships. They usually move more slowly through the adaptation-mastery stage and are likely to have poor self-concepts when compared to normal children. A poor self-concept and negative social evaluation may interfere with the formation of interpersonal relationships and, subsequently, the learning of social and personal controls.

AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT IN THE EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED

Introducion

Conditions in young children considered emotionally disturbed range from severe psychosis such as autism or childhood schizophrenia to specific behavior problems.

The psychoses are characterized by highly disturbed thought and behavior patterns such that the individual lacks reality contact sufficient to function as a normal individual. The specific psychotic conditions schizophrenia and autism imply a withdrawal from social contact and often involve bizarre behavior such as repetitive rocking. The symbiotic psychosis involves excessively dependent behavior. Panic is common in the symbiotic child who is alone or separated from his mother. When psychosis does occur in childhood, it usually becomes apparent in the first five years of life and peculiarities in behavior are often noted as early as one year. Childhood psychosis rarely develops between the ages of five and ten.

Emotional disturbance is used in reference to the various disturbances that are not as profound as the psychoses. Included in this category are children with acting out problems, enuresis, excessive tantrums, and the like. Emotional disturbance is the term of choice for children who display personality disorders, neurotic disorders, and specific behavior problems. Since it is employed for such a wide range of symptoms it has little explanatory value.

For the most part, psychoneurotic disorders require a personality structure that has not been achieved in the preschool child. Psychoneurosis usually implies intrapersonal conflict and is, thus, rarely manifested in the young child. For example, phobic neuroses such as a long-term fear of the dark are to be distinguished from the transient and mild phobias of the preschool child.

Numerous classification systems have been proposed for the disorders of childhood. The Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry (1966) lists ten categories: healthy responses, reactive disorders, developmental deviations, psychoneurotic disorders, personality disorders, psychic disorders, psychophysiologic disorders, brain syndromes, mental retardation, and other disorders. These categories are arranged roughly in a hierarchy ranging from healthy responses, through to more severe psychological disorders, to syndromes in which somatic factors predominate. In practice, children manifesting disorders other than psychosis and mental retardation are usually considered emotionally disturbed.

Diagnosticians are uncertain as to the nature of psychosis in childhood and much controversy surrounds this issue. Some clinicians consider the terms childhood schizophrenia and autism synonymous while others, such as Kanner (1954), view autism as a special form of schizophrenia. Rimland (1964) considers infantile autism and childhood schizophrenia separate entities, distinguishable by age of onset and form of symptoms.

Much of the research and theory on emotional disturbance in infancy and early childhood has focused on autism. For each dimension of development discussion begins with reference to the autistic condition and then speaks to emotional disturbance and symbiotic psychosis. The emphasis is on noting those areas in which affective development in the emotionally disturbed does not proceed as in normals.

Emergence of Self

Most children diagnosed as emotionally disturbed or psychotic appear normal physically and their motor coordination proceeds as in normal infants. They usually follow the general pattern outlined for normals as regards the discovery of physical self.

Rocking and other self stimulatory behavior has often been observed in conjunction with the autistic syndrome. It seems to be the case that autistic children can become fixated on some pattern of physical stimulation. These behaviors do not emerge until later, however, and it cannot be ascertained whether or not this tendency is the result of faulty development during this stage of infancy or whether it is part of a complex syndrome.

It is at the time that the normal infant is learning that he can emit emotional responses and elicit behavior from others that autism becomes apparent. Mothers often complain that these infants are cold and unresponsive. The social smile is absent and they do not show the pleasure that normal infants exhibit in the presence of their mother.

This poverty in affective communication leads to difficulties in normal speech development. The speech of autistic children has been noted to be repetitious, parrotlike, and sterotyped. Autistics do not learn to communicate with the ease and spontaneity that normal infants and other emotionally disturbed children do.

Autistic children often manifest a preoccupation with inanimate objects. This tendency does not show up until the child is able to grasp and manipulate objects. It is uncertain as to whether this developmental anomaly has its origin in a disruption of object permanence or stems from other difficulties.

Disorders labeled emotional disturbance usually do not become apparent during infancy. The child who later shows disturbances may or may not have had difficulties in infancy. It is likely that some of these children do have problems in the early years although there is probably no single pattern that differentiates them from infants who do not manifest emotional disturbance later.

There is some evidence that children manifesting a symbiotic psychosis suffer an impairment in the development of an accurate body percept. In late infancy and early childhood they sometimes show signs of serious disturbances in perception of body image and in body functioning and they often confuse themselves with other people (Mahler, 1952). Symbiotic psychosis is usually not suspected until the second year however.

The symbiotic child shows a reversal of the symptoms of the autistic child. While the autistic child fails to develop normal affective communication patterns the symbiotic child's communication is hypersensitive. That is, he is easily frustrated and may be considered a "cry baby". It can be said of the symbiotic child that he "over-learns" how to use himself as the object of affect and manifests an excess of affection communications, often to the point of being oversensitive.

Symbiotic children sometimes show evidence of disturbed physical percepts. This may be related to a lag in development occurring during the emergence of the self as the object of affect or to a preoccupation with affective communication, either of which may interfere with normal object permanence development.

Caretaker Attachment

The autistic child, who has already had difficulty in learning to employ affect as an interaction tool, has not had adequate preparation for the development of a normal attachment to his caretaker. Indeed, he is usually not cuddly and is often uncomfortable with close physical contact. He does not rely upon the mother for comfort and assistance to the extent that the normal child does. Neither does he engender the caretaker's attachment for him since he does not "reward" caretaking behaviors with smiles and other signs of pleasure.

The symbiotic child, in sharp contrast to the autistic child, manifests an "over-attachment" to his mother. In psychoanalytic terms he shares his mother's ego. Mahler (1952), who has derived a psychoanalytic theory of symbiotic psychosis, notes that separation from the mother in these cases is extremely difficult. The child does not naturally separate since he has developed a pathological attachment to the mother. Separation anxiety is extreme in this case.

Adaptation-Mastery

It is at the stage in which exploration is prominent that the autistic child's somewhat peculiar relationship with objects is noted. He does not explore and manipulate the environment in the same manner as do normal children.. The autistic child is fascinated with handling physical objects, especially if they can be manipulated and he usually focuses his attention on a limited number of physical objects. Things that spin or things that can be patterned can engross an autistic child's attention for extended periods of time. His exposure only to a limited number of objects and his oftentimes repetitious manipulation of these objects make him less likely to gain an adequate mastery of his environment.

Autistic children exhibit an atypical relationship with their environment in that they are highly structured and have an "anxiously obsessive desire for the maintenance of sameness" (Kanner, 1943, p. 245). These children are highly constricted and can become very upset if routine schedules or familiar arrangements are not maintained. This need for structure and sameness further exemplifies their impoverished mastery of the environment.

The symbiotic child does not separate easily from his mother and manifests extreme anxiety upon separation. He thus does not explore his environment as does the normal child and his development of mastery of the environment is hampered.

If a preschooler is to be labeled brain damaged it is at this stage that the symptoms become apparent. As the child explores his environment and manipulates objects in it, perceptual-motor problems may be noted. Or an impoverishment in the development of vocabulary or conceptual abilities may become noticeable if an early education program has begun. Symptoms characteristic of brain damage are rarely noted earlier than age three or four and the label is usually reserved for school-age children.

It is also at this stage that the various other disturbances of childhood are usually noted: special symptoms such as disorders of sleep, feeding disturbances, and enuresis and behavior disorders of childhood such as hyperkinesia. Infants rarely show disturbances in sleep and feeding patterns. Also, a child would not be considered hyperkinetic unless he was well developed physically nor enuretic unless he was supposed to have been mature enough to control his urination. For these reasons, many of the above mentioned emotional disturbances are not noted until the late preschool years or elementary school years. The adaptation-mastery stage is the time when many emotional disturbances are noted since the young child is now required to manifest greater self control and awareness of the environment.

Self-Concept

For the psychotic conditions autism and symbiosis the groundwork for the development of an adequate self-concept has not been laid. Serious disturbances in affect have already been noted. Psychotic children have failed to develop normal interactional patterns and their perceptions of others and objects are distorted. They lack the ability to realistically appraise feedback from their environment as it relates to formation of a concept of self. Rather than showing a poor self-concept they simply may not have developed any concept at all of themselves. Indeed, the symbiotic child is said to possess no ego of his own (Mahler, 1952) and the autistic child appears to have little regard for himself or others (Kanner, 1943 and Rimland, 1964).

Children with less serious emotional disturbances, such as hyperkinesia, negativism, or enuresis, usually have a poor self concept. Oftentimes, their behaviors make them subject to disapproval. Since children evaluate themselves partially on the basis of information they receive from others, these negative views of their behavior are incorporated into their self-concepts. It is difficult, however, to determine the exact nature of the connection between emotional disturbance and a poor self-concept. There is probably a correlation between the two but the direction of causality cannot be stated unequivocably.

Socialization

A major characteristic differentiating autistics from normals is social responsiveness. Autistics are notably less responsive to caretaker and peers. They approach others less often than normals, initiate fewer interactions, and are less receptive when approached by others. Their interpersonal communication lacks the warmth and spontaneity that is usually found in the four and five-year-old child. According to Kanner (1943) one of the two major symptomatic requirements for the diagnosis of autism is an inability to make affective contact with people.

The autistic child exhibits an atypical pattern in development of social and personal controls. Since his behavior is usually somewhat stereotyped and rigid he may appear to be overly socialized. This characteristic is actually more a function of inhibition in spontaneous behavior than successful socialization. The autistic child may exhibit excessive control of behavior but does not integrate social rules as easily as the normal child, simply because he is less responsive to social demands. The autistic child may be able to learn the rules of society but usually adheres to these rules mechanically and without grasp of the nature of social interactions. According to Kessler (1966):

> "Although autistic children outgrow some of their autism, they remain egocentric. They are unable to see themselves as others see them; they lack tact and poise; they cannot join a group; they remain socially isolated. They may learn to travel in company, but not with company." (p. 271.)

According to Kessler (1966) the most important single sign of psychosis in early childhood is a severely disturbed relationship with people, which takes the form of an inability to separate from another person in the symbiotic psychosis. The symbiotic child is, thus, overly responsive to his caretaker. This inability to separate from the caretaker may interfere with the formation of other relationships. Also, the symbiotic child's learning of social and personal controls may be hampered in that his exposure to other persons and outside agencies is restricted.

The emotionally disturbed child exhibits a wide range of interpersonal styles, depending upon the nature of his disorder. The excessively shy child shows timidity and fear of social contact. At the opposite end of the continuum of interpersonal styles there is the child who acts out and displays aggressive, hostile behavior toward others. Children with emotional disturbances do not necessarily show atypical patterns of social responsiveness, although this is usually the case. Also, these children may or may not have problems learning social and personal control. In the case of the child who acts out there is a tendency to operate in blatant defiance of demands placed on him by others.

Summary

In tracing the development of children with autistic psychosis, symbiotic psychosis, and emotional disturbance it has become apparent that developmental anomalies can take many forms and occur at various stages. The autistic child manifests atypical affective development in that he fails to develop a normal emotional responsivity to his caretaker and others. His behavior patterns are also quite constricted so that exploration of the environment is minimal or focused on a few objects. This behavioral restriction inhibits adaptation to the environment and the learning of social and personal controls. The symbiotic child's emotional responsivity is, on the other hand, excessive. He is often extremely sensitive and may panic upon separation from the mother. The symbiotic child's mastery of the environment is hampered since separation and independent exploration are precluded by his extreme dependency. Emotional disturbances such as extreme misbehavior and excessive tantrums are usually noted in the adaptation-mastery stage, when the child is expected to exercise greater self-control and awareness of his environment and the consequences of his behavior.

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Chapter III

AVAILABLE INSTRUMENTATION FOR AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

The primary purpose of this chapter is to present the available assessment instruments which measure affective development in the preschool child. Before introducing the available instruments in the field, however, the purposes of assessment and the different types of instruments will be discussed.

Assessment serves many purposes. One of the most important reasons for the development of assessment instruments is to give objectivity to observations. Oftentimes, two teachers or other professionals observe a child's behavior and, because of individual differences in perception, they perceive the child's behavior differently. This type of error in judgment may be reduced or eliminated if a behavioral checklist or another type of instrumentation is used.

Another important purpose of assessment is to predict future behavior. By assessing a child at an early age, it is often possible to predict areas in which the child may develop weaknesses. This form of assessment is particularly useful when evaluating at risk infants. Through early identification, these children may receive appropriate services at the earliest possible time.

Assessment is also a major part of the decision making process with regard to placement for the handicapped child. Through the use of an assessment battery it is possible to determine where a child will receive the best possible care and instruction. Once the child is placed, the data collected during assessment is extremely useful in curriculum planning. The final step in this process is re-evaluation to determine the child's progress and the effectiveness of the curriculum used.

Types of Assessment

There are two different types of assessment: informal and formal. An example of informal assessment is the case history. By carefully examining an individual's past, it is possible to identify various events which may have influenced his development. This identification can prove very useful in constructing a remediation program.

Testing is a form of formal assessment. There are two types of tests: norm referenced and criterion referenced. Norm referenced tests measure differences between individuals in relationship to some relative standards while criterion referenced tests measure an individual's position with respect to some performance standard. Both types of measures are important and have a place in early childhood assessment. Norm referenced measures tell us how young handicapped children compare with norm groups while criterion referenced tests are useful for placement training and monitoring.

When reviewing the tests that are available, it becomes apparent that there are three methods of approaching affective development in the preschool child. The first of these is careful observation and a checklist form. A trained professional observes the child for several sessions and rates the child according to the types of behaviors he has observed. Two examples of this form of assessment are the California Preschool Social Competency Scale and SEED.

The second method of assessing affective development involves interviewing the child's parent or caretaker. This method relies on the caretaker's ability to accurately report the child's personality characteristics and behavior. This method has both advantages and disadvantages. If the caretaker is capable of accurately reporting the child's typical behavior, it is an excellent tool because the caretaker is able to observe the child over long periods of time in many different situations. The principal disadvantage to this approach is the caretaker may not be able to objectively observe and report the child's behaviors. The Developmental Screening Questionnaire is an example of this type of assessment.

The third form of assessment is testing or interviewing the child. This form is often used for measuring a child's self-concept. It usually entails working with the child on a one-to-one basis. The child is often asked to circle or point to the figure which is most like him. The principal disadvantage of this method is it relies on the child's ability to follow directions and point or circle the correct response. These instruments may not be used with very young or handicapped children. However, they are effective with four and five-year old children who have had some experience working with strangers, following directions, and holding a pencil. Two examples of this form of assessment are Scamin and the Brown IDS Self-Concept Referents Test.

Most of the instruments which will be discussed in this chapter are very recent. Before the birth of Head Start, very few instruments were available for preschool children. Since the emphasis on preschool education has increased, many excellent instruments measuring cognitive, motor, and speech development have been developed for the preschool child. A limited number of instruments have also been developed in the area of affective development.

Search for Instruments

The tests and assessment instruments presented in this chapter were gathered from many sources. The first step was an extensive manual search of the literature, with emphasis on the education and psychological journals. This search yielded a great many references relevant to objective behavior. Next, the Eric Computer Retrieval System was utilized. The subject terms used to locate materials through Eric were children, preschool, affective development, emotions, personality, motivation, and behavior problems. Many relevant materials which were not identified in the manual literature research were found using this method.

Another method employed to locate materials was contacting all the prpjects in the HCEEP network and all regional research and developmental centers. A copy of the project's abstract and a cover letter requesting cooperation was mailed to each project. Many of these projects responded. Relevant research in progress was identified through these projects.

Bibliographies found in various books, and articles also provided resource materials. Relevant books cited in the literature were ordered and reviewed. Also, individuals cited in the pertinent research were contacted and requested to forward any additional information or materials on affective development.

Finally, the Interstate Educational Resource Service Center was utilized to obtain materials in the assessment area. Their publication, Measurement of Affect and the Humanizing of Education: Search for Affective Instrument proved to be extremely helpful as did their collection of available instruments in the area of preschool affective development.

The instruments presented in this chapter are only a representation of the available instruments in affective development for the preschool child. Many instruments were eliminated because they did not assess the particular dimensions discussed, or they were not readily available.

Organization of the Chart

A chart has been developed to present the various assessment instruments which have been identified in the area of affective development for the preschool child. This method of presenting the various instruments was selected to aid teachers and professionals in identifying the instrument appropriate for their purposes. Included in the graph are: (1) the name of the instrument, (2) the type of instrument, either a test or a rating scale, (3) the age range covered by the instrument, (4) test administrator, and (5) the dimensions of development assessed by the instrument.

The types of instruments listed on the chart are categorized as either "tests" or "rating scales". "Tests" include all instruments which require direct input from the child, whether through interviewing the child or requiring the child to circle or point to the appropriate response. "Rating scales" include all instruments based on observation of the child or interviews with the child's parents or teacher.

The chart also identifies the appropriate test administrator for each instrument. Listed in this area are parents, paraprofessionals, teachers, and other professionals. Paraprofessionals includes teacher's aids and other service workers. "Other professionals" include psychologists, social workers, nurses and doctors who are involved in assessing children in the area of affective development.

The five dimensions of development: (1) Emergence of Self, (2) Caretaker Attachment, (3) Adaptation-Mastery, (4) Self-Concept, and (5) Socialization have been clearly defined in Chapter One. It should be noted that "Emergence of Self" and "Caretaker Attachment" are seldom addressed in the available assessment scales. The few instruments which do assess these stages of development do so briefly.

Most of the instruments reviewed measure "Adaptation-Mastery", "Self-Concept", and "Socialization". In general, these instruments were designed to measure affective development in children four and five years of age who are enrolled in a day care center, head start or other nursery schools. Many of these instruments are excellent measurements of affective development in the areas of self-concept and socialization.

Following the chart, an annotated bibliography is presented in which each assessment instrument is described in greater detail.

NAME OF INSTRUMENT	TYPE OF INSTRUMENT		AGE						ADMINISTERED BY				DIMENSIONS				
	Test	Rating Scale	0-6	6-12	12-24	24-36	36-48	48-60	Parent	Paraprof.	Professional	Teacher	Emergence of Self	Caretaker Attachment	Adapt Master	Self-Concept	Socialization
An Evaluation Scale for 4 & 5 year olds		X						X				X			X	X	
Assessment by Behavioral Rating						X	X	X					X	X	X		X
Bayley	X	X	X	X	X	X					X		X		X		
Brown I.D.S. Self-Concept Referents Test	X							X		X	X	X				X	X
Cain-Levine Social Competency		X						X			X	X					X
California Preschool Social Competency		X					X	X		X		X				X	
Children's Self Social Constructs Test	X						X	X		X		X				X	X
Cincinatti Autonomy	X						X	X			X	X				X	
Comprehensive Identification Process		X	X			X	X	X		X	X		X		X		
Day Care Behavior Inventory		X				X	X	X				X				X	X
Denver Developmental Screening Test		X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X					
Developmental Guidelines (Karnes)		X			X							X			X	X	
Developmental Screening Questionnaire		X				X	X	X		X		X					X
Early Intervention Developmental Profile	X	X	X	X	X	X					X		X	X	X		X
Infant Behavior Inventory		X			X	X	X		X			X	X		X	X	
Infant & Preschool Social Behavior Checklist		X	X	X	X	X	X	X							X		

NAME OF INSTRUMENT	TYPE OF INSTRUMENT		AGE						ADMINISTERED BY				DIMENSIONS				
	Test	Rating Scale	0-6	6-12	12-24	24-36	36-48	48-60	Parent	Paraprof.	Professional	Teacher	Emergence of Self	Caretaker Attachment	Adapt Master	Self-Concept	Socialization
Learner Self-Concept	X							X		X		X				X	
Lexington Developmental Scale		X				X	X	X				X					X
Minnesota		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X		X		
Preschool Rating Scale		X				X	X	X				X					X
Preschool Self-Concept Picture Test							X	X				X				X	
Primary Academic Sentiment Scale	X							X				X				X	X
Primary Self-Concept Inventory	X						X	X				X				X	
Psychiatric Behavior Rating		X				X	X	X				X	X		X	X	
Scale of Attachment Behaviors		X	X	X							X			X			
Self-Concept & Motivation Inventory	X							X				X				X	
Sewell Early Education Development Program	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X		X		
Vineland Social Maturity		X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X				X		

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

AN EVALUATION SCALE FOR FOUR AND FIVE YEAR OLD CHILDREN
Annie L. Butler
School of Education
Indiana University
Bloomington, Indiana 47401

The Evaluation Scale for Four and Five Year Old Children was developed as a research tool. This scale measures self-concept, the child in relation to other people, the child in relation to his physical environment and the child in relation to the world of ideas. It was developed to be administered by preschool and kindergarten teachers. The teachers who field tested the scale felt that it would be useful in measuring a child's development throughout the year and helpful in providing parents with information during parent interviews. Reliability data is not presently available on the scale.

ASSESSMENT BY BEHAVIOR RATING
Elizabeth Y. Sharp and Carol A. Loumeau
University of Arizona
College of Education
Department of Special Education
Tucson, Arizona 85721

The Assessment by Behavior Rating was developed for use with children two, three, and four years old. The instrument includes questions in the areas of physical, self-help, language and social development. It is a criterion-referenced instrument based on normative assessment. The main objectives of the instrument are (1) to indicate individual strengths, weaknesses or average development in the areas assessed and (2) to indicate a child's developmental age in each area. It was designed to be administered by teachers as an aid in curriculum planning. Reliability and validity data are not available.

BAYLEY SCALES OF INFANT DEVELOPMENT
Nancy Bayley
Psychological Corporation
304 East 45th Street
New York, New York 10017

The Bayley Scales assess development in infants from birth to thirty months. The scale is divided into three sections: The Mental Scale, The Motor Scale and The Infant Behavior Record. The latter of the three deals with social orientation, emotional variables, object relations and motivational variables. This section is scored by the examiner on the basis of his observations after the other scales have been completed. The entire scale takes about forty-five minutes to score, is very comprehensive, and must be administered by a trained professional. Reliability coefficients for the Mental Scale range from .81 to .93 with median value of .88.

BROWN - IDS SELF-CONCEPT REFERENTS TEST
Burt Brown
Institute for Developmental Studies
IPS East Building 3rd Floor
School od Education
New York University
New York, New York 10003

The Brown IDS Self-Concept Referents Test was designed to measure self-concept in Head Start children. A full length polaroid picture is taken of the child. The child is then asked questions concerning the picture which reveal how the child perceives himself and how he perceives his mother, teachers and peers see him. Reliability and validity data are reported and suggest that young children have a strong tendency to select positive,socially acceptable attributes.

CAIN-LEVINE SOCIAL COMPETENCY SCALE
L. F. Cain, Samuel Levine, F. F. Elzey
Consulting Psychology Press, Inc.
577 College Avenue
Palo Alto, California 94306

The Cain-Levine was developed explicitly to provide a method of measuring the social competency of trainable mentally retarded children ages five through thirteen. The scale consists of 44 items and includes items in the areas of Self-Help, Initiative, Social Skills and Communication. The data provided by the scale may be useful in curriculum planning and measuring the child's progress. Norms have been established for trainable mentally retarded children and reliability and validity data are available.

CALIFORNIA PRESCHOOL SOCIAL COMPETENCY SCALE
Samuel Levine, F. F. Elzey, Mary Lewis
Consulting Psychologist Press, Inc.
577 College Avenue
Palo Alto, California 94306

The California Preschool Social Competency Scale is designed to measure inter-personal behavior and social responsibility in children ages two to five. The CPSCS contains thirty items designed to be rated by a classroom teacher. Some of these are in response to routine, reaction to frustration and accepting limits. Age percentile norms and inter-rater reliabilities (ranging from .75 to .86) are reported.

CHILDREN'S SELF-SOCIAL CONSTRUCTS TEST: PRESCHOOL FORM
Barbara Long, Edmund Henderson, R. C. Ziller
Office of Special Tests
Educational Testing Services
In Executive Park Drive, NE
Suite 100
Atlanta, Georgia 30329

The Children's Self-Social Constructs Test measures self-concept, dependence, and esteem in children three to eight years. It is individually administered and requires about ten minutes to give. The child is required to select a circle, draw a circle, or paste a circle to represent himself or someone else. These nonverbal responses indicate the child's identification with or preference for either mother, father, teacher or friends. Psychometric data is available.

CINCINATTI AUTONOMY
T. J. Banta, and T. S. Banta
Psychology Department
University of Cincinatti
Cincinatti, Ohio 45221

The Cincinatti Autonomy Test Battery measures autonomous functioning in problem solving in children ages three to six. Some of the variables included in the battery are social competency, curiosity, innovative behavior, and impulse control, reflectivity. The battery is given individually and takes about one hour to administer. Inter-rater, test-retest, odd-even reliabilities and correlations with Stanford-Binet I.Q. scores are reported.

COMPREHENSIVE IDENTIFICATION PROCESS: CIP
R. Reid Zehrback
Scholastic Testing Service, Inc.
480 Meyer Road
Bensenville, Indiana 60106

The Comprehensive Identification Process (CIP) is an integrated screening program for identifying children 2½ to 5½ years of age who may need special medical, psychological or educational assistance before entering kindergarten or first grade. Eight areas are tested: cognitive verbal, fine motor, gross motor, speech and expressive language, hearing, vision, social-affective and medical history. The social-affective section consists of a parent interview form. The CIP is quite time consuming and must be administered by a trained professional. Reliability and validity data are not available.

DAY CARE BEHAVIOR INVENTORY
Earl J. Schaefer and May Aaronson
National Institute of Mental Health
5600 Fishers Lane
Rakville, Maryland 20852

The Day Care Behavior Inventory assesses behavior in a preschool setting and is rated by a teacher. Areas covered by the Inventory are extraversion, introversion, hostility, considerateness, task-oriented behavior and distractibility. The teacher rates the child's behavior on a 1-5 scale, ranging from almost never to almost always. A Home Behavior Inventory (to be rated by the child's parents) accompanies this form. Reliability and validity data are not available.

DENVER DEVELOPMENTAL SCREENING TEST
W. Frakenburg and J. B. Dodds
Lodaca Project and Publishing Foundation
East 51st Avenue and Lincoln
Denver, Colorado 80216

The Denver Developmental Screening Test is an easy to administer tool used to identify developmental delays in children two weeks to six years. Areas covered in the test are gross motor, fine motor, language, and personal-social. The latter area deals with self-help skills and the ability to relate to others. The test is individually administered and requires no special training. This measurement was designed as a screening test and should not be used for pre and post test comparisons. Task norms and reliability data are available.

DEVELOPMENTAL GUIDELINES
C. C. Sprugel, and S. Goldberg, under direction of Merle B. Karnes
University of Illinois Press
University of Illinois
Urbana, Illinois 61801

The Developmental Guidelines were compiled as an instrument to be used by teachers to assess the developmental level of a child and to plan appropriate curriculum activities. The task areas are gross motor, fine motor, cognitive, linguistic, verbal, self-help and social play. The items were chosen from widely used scales of child development and are appropriate for children birth through seventy-two months. The guidelines appear to be useful for obtaining an overall picture of the child. Validity and reliability data are not available.

THE EARLY INTERVENTION DEVELOPMENT PROFILE: A DEVELOPMENTAL SCREENING OF HANDICAPPED INFANTS

Diane B. D'Eugenio, and Sally J. Rogers
Institute for the Study of Mental Retardation
University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, Michigan

The Developmental Screening of Handicapped Infants was designed to supplement the diagnostic data provided by standardized testing instruments. It is a comprehensive screening instrument containing six developmental sequences which normally emerge between birth and thirty-six months. The Profile is not a standardized instrument and it has not been validated on normal or handicapped children. It is intended to be used to supplement, not replace, formalized evaluation. Areas of development assessed by the Profile include language, gross motor, fine motor, social/emotional, self-care and cognitive development.

INFANT AND PRESCHOOL SOCIAL BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST
SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL ADJUSTMENT RATING SCALES FOR INFANTS AND PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

Katherine M. Banham

The Infant and Preschool Social Behavior Checklist and the Social and Emotional Adjustment Rating Scales were developed to compare the behaviors of cerebral palsied and non-handicapped children. The scales and the checklist are designed for children five months to five years of age and may be administered by teachers. Some of the items covered by the two instruments are Behavior with Adult, Behavior with Child, Happy Situations and Behavior and Unhappy Situations and Behavior. Reliability and validity data are reported in the manual.

INFANT BEHAVIOR INVENTORY
E. Scheafer, M. Aarsonson
National Institute of Mental Health
5600 Fishers Lane
Rakville, Maryland 20852

The Infant Behavior Inventory assesses 115 behaviors in children ages one to three. The observer (mother, tutor, caretaker) is asked to rate the child's behavior as "very much alike", "somewhat alike", "very little alike", or "not at all alike". Some of the areas covered by the scale are self-consciousness, withdrawal, hyperactivity, fearfulness, cheerfulness, contentment and distractibility. Norms have not been established.

LEARNER SELF-CONCEPT TEST
Louis T. DiLorenzo
University of the State of New York
State Education Department
Office of Research and Evaluation
Albany, New York 12224

The Learner Self-Concept Test was designed to measure self-perception in children 3½-4½ years. The teacher individually tests each child to determine his self-perception with respect to the teacher, the other children, and the materials in the preschool setting. Separate forms are available for white males, nonwhite males, white females and nonwhite females. Norms have been established and validity data is reported in the manual.

LEXINGTON DEVELOPMENTAL SCALE

J. V. Irwin, M. N. Ward, C. C. Deen, A. B. Greis, A. A. Taylor, C. A. Coleman
Child Development Centers
P. O. Box 8003
465 Springhill Drive
Lexington, Kentucky 40503

The Lexington Developmental Scale evaluates five areas of development: Motor, Language, Personal and Social, Cognitive and Emotional. The scale is administered by teachers and is a basis for curriculum planning, an aid in helping parents understand their child, and a means for evaluating a child's progress.

The Emotional Section, containing eighteen items, assesses children from 2-6 year old. Some of the items included in this section are accepts responsibility, responds to new situation, follows rules and free from tensional outlets. The scale is completed by a teacher following several observation periods. Reliability and validity data are reported in the manual.

MINNESOTA CHILD DEVELOPMENT INVENTORY

Harold Ireton, and Edward Thwing

The Minnesota Child Development Inventory includes 320 statements which measure a child's development. The Inventory is used for preliminary identification of problems in children 6 months to 6½ years of age and is rated by the child's mother. Some examples of statements in the Personal-Social area are: refers to self as boy or girl correctly, plays house with other children, responds to voices, and reaches for familiar people.

Norms have been established for the Inventory and are available from the authors.

THE PRESCHOOL RATING SCALE
W. F. Barker, L. Sandler, A. Bornemann, G. Knight
Franklin Institute Research Laboratories
Twentieth and Parkway
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19103

The Preschool Rating Scale contains twenty items which assess personal social development in children 2½-6½ years old. The scale was developed to be used by Day Care Center personnel. Areas covered by the scale are coordination, verbal expression, auditory understandings, orientation and social relations. Reliability and validity data are available through the authors.

PRESCHOOL SELF-CONCEPT PICTURE TEST
Rosestelle B. Woolner
RKA Publishing Company
3551 Aurora Circle
Memphis, Tennessee 38111

The Preschool Self-Concept Picture Test was designed to determine the opinions children have of themselves: (1) as they perceive themselves to be (self-concept), (2) as they think they would like to be (ideal self-concept), and (3) the degree of validity between the two. The test is a non-verbal picture tests, may be administered by non-professionals, and takes approximately 15 minutes to administer. The test is available in four forms: Negro boys, Negro girls, Caucasian boys and Caucasian girls. Validity and relability data accompany the tests.

PRIMARY ACADEMIC SENTIMENT SCALE (PASS)
Glen R. Thompson
Priority Inovations, Inc.
P. O. Box 792
Skokie, Illinois 60076

The Primary Academic Sentiment Scale was developed to obtain objective information about a child's motivation for learning and his relative level of maturity and parental independence. The scale may be given individually or to a group and is appropriate for children 4 years 4 months - 7 years 3 months. Preskills necessary for the child are ability to use pencil, manipulate and turn pages of a book and follow simple directions. Because of the preskills necessary, this scale is not appropriate for most handicapped children. Validity and reliability (less than .70 preschoolers) data are available.

PRIMARY SELF-CONCEPT INVENTORY
D. G. Muller, and Robert Leonetti
Learning Concepts
2501 N. Lamar
Austin, Texas 78705

The Primary Self-Concept Inventory was designed for evaluating several aspects of self-concept relevant to school success in children four to twelve years of age. The Inventory is composed of 20 items. Each item depicts at least one child in a positive role and at least one in a negative role. There are separate male and female forms. The test measures three major domains of self-concept: personal self, social self and intellectual self. Reliability and validity data are available.

THE PSYCHIATRIC BEHAVIOR SCALE
W. F. Barker, L. Sandler, A. Bornemann, G. Knight, S. Risen, F. Humphrys

The Psychiatric Behavior Scale contains fourteen items which assess emotional development in children 2½-6½ years old. The scale was designed to be used by Day Care Center personnel. Some of the areas covered by the scale are expression of aggression, relationships, impulse control, reaction to stress, and need for communication. Reliability and validity data are reported by the authors.

SCALE OF ATTACHMENT BEHAVIORS OCCURING BETWEEN MOTHER AND INFANTS IN THE FIRST YEAR OF LIFE

Henry Massie, M. A. Campbell
San Francisco General Hospital
San Francisco, California

This scale was designed to attempt to quantify the dynamic process of interaction between mother and child. The principal modalities of attachment listed include feeding, holding, eye gaze, following and touching. A trained person observes the mother and infant when engaged in attachment behaviors and rates them numerically according to each components description. These ratings are an indication of the relative strength of each one's participation in attachment to the other and can reveal dissynchronous interaction. This comprehensive scale is one of the few available instruments which accesses caretaker attachment. Reliability data is available from the author.

THE SELF-CONCEPT AND MOTIVATION INVENTORY (SCAMIN)

N. J. Milchus, G. A. Farrah, and William Reitz
Person-O-Metrics
205-04 Williamsburg Road
Dearborn Heights, Michigan 48127

The Self Concept and Motivation Inventory assesses self-concept in children 4-17 years of age. The Pre-School-Kindergarten form is used for children 4-5 years old. The child must have had previous school experience in order to follow the directions and mark the inventory. The inventory is not suited for severely handicapped children. The areas covered in the scale are goal and achievement needs, role expectation, failure avoidance and self adequacy. The reliability coefficient for the preschool form is .79.

SEWELL EARLY EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM (SEED)

J.H. Herst, Sheila Wolfe, Gloria Joregenson, Sandra Palian

The SEED assessment profile assesses development in infants from birth through 48 months. The areas of development covered by the scale are social-emotional, gross motor, fine motor, adaptive-reasoning, receptive language, expressive language, feeding, dressing, and hygiene. All of the above profiles may be utilized by professional or paraprofessionals who work with children. Following the assessment, profile curriculum ideas are provided.

The social-emotional section is administered through observation of the child. The areas covered in this section are Visual Regard, Socialization, Differentiation of Self and Others, Imitation and Play. Once the child is assessed his scores are placed on a profile sheet. Self-concept reliability is .79.

VINELAND SOCIAL MATURITY SCALE

Edgar A. Doll
American Guidance Service, Inc.
Publishers Building
Circle Pines, Minnesota 55014

The Vineland Social Maturity Scale assesses progress in the areas of self-help, self-direction, locomotion, occupation, communications, and social relations in subjects birth through adulthood. The scale is administered through interviewing someone who knows the subject well or the subject himself. It must be administered by a trained professional. Test-retest reliabilities, comparisons of social age and social quotients with chronological age and item validation studies are available.

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Anastasi, Anne. *Psychological Testing*. New York: MacMillian Company, 1968.

Boger, Robert P. and Knight, Sarah S. *Head Start Evaluation and Research Center*. Michigan State University, 1969.

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Tuckman, Bruce W. *Measuring Educational Outcomes: Fundamentals of Testing*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Incorporated, 1975.

Walker, Deborah Klein. *Socioemotional Measures for Preschool and Kindergarten Children*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1973.

Wight, Albert R., Doxey, James R., Mathiesen, Ronald. *Measurement of Affect and Humanizing of Education: Part VI: Search for Affective Instrument and Measurement Procedures*. Salt Lake City, Utah: Interstate Educational Resource Center, 1974.

CHAPTER IV

AVAILABLE CURRICULUM FOR AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT

INTRODUCTION

The importance of acquiring affective competence has been noted in previous chapters. The importance of systematic teaching of skills in the affective area has not, however, been mentioned. Until only recently, affective development had been left mainly to chance in the development of children. Systematic programs were nonexistent. Some curriculum programs dealing with cognitive skills touched briefly on affective skills, particularly the skill area of socialization. The necessity of presenting cognitive skills systematically in teaching handicapped children is well documented. It would follow then, that the systematic teaching of affective skills is also necessary for handicapped children.

The search for curriculum materials for preschool affective development revealed several deficit areas. The first and major deficit area is the lack of systematic objectives or procedures. Many of the affective programs reviewed did not systematically address the affective development of children, i.e., the social and emotional development was left to chance. Although these programs presented tasks for the development of affect, they did not do so in a sequential or developmental manner.

Because the cognitive and physical areas are stressed, skills in identification of emotions and learning to cope with emotions are commonly neglected in the handicapped child's development. The cognitive and physical development of handicapped children has been approached very systematically with many objectives for each phase of learning. Unfortunately, this is not true for the affective area of development.

A second deficit found in the search for curriculum materials for affective development of preschool handicapped children is that very few materials have been developed for handicapped children under three years old. Literature and research has repeatedly stressed the importance of the first four years in the total development of a child. Yet most affective materials available require the child to be verbal, or at least have some means of communicating. These materials may, thus, not benefit the handicapped child since communication skills often appear very late in the developmental sequence.

In addition the search for preschool affective materials found very few curriculum materials designed specifically for handicapped children. Many of the affective curriculum materials designed for use with normal preschool children are adaptable with minimal effort by the programer. These programs, however, do not deal with problems specific to handicapped children, such as coping with the handicapping condition.

SEARCH FOR CURRICULUM MATERIALS

The search for curriculum materials in the affective area of early childhood development began with a comprehensive search of all ERIC publications. Next, each project listed on the First Chance List of the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped funded projects for preschool children were contacted for information in the affective area. Site visits were made to several of these projects. Next, all persons who had made paper presentations at the 1975 and 1976 National Council for Exceptional Children conventions, and the 1975 American Psychological Association convention were asked to provide their papers and any other relevant information. Preschool materials in Special Education Media Centers at various places were also visited and relevant materials reviewed.

In addition, a computer search was conducted for materials dealing with preschool affective development at The National Center on Educational Media and Materials for the Handicapped, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio and Texas State Learning Resource Center, University of Texas, Austin, Texas. Both of these searches proved extremely helpful in identifying materials.

Published bibliographies of materials available from books and articles were reviewed. Programs cited, relevant to affective development, were reviewed. Two very useful books were: Instructional Materials for the Handicapped; Birth Through Early Childhood by Arden R. Thorum and Early Childhood Curriculum Materials; An Annotated Bibliography by Gloria Harbin and Lee Cross of the TAD's system.

Finally, publishing companies were contacted and catalogues were reviewed. Materials found relevant to the area of preschool affective development were ordered and reviewed.

TYPES OF CURRICULUM MATERIALS

For the purposes of this manuscript, curriculum materials have been grouped into two categories. The first category, curriculum guides, includes all the curriculum materials which give activities, procedures, suggestions, etc. without providing any of the equipment or material necessary to carry out the activities. An example of this type of curriculum material is Baby Learning Through Baby Play. This book is full of practical ideas and suggestions for parents but none of the equipment (such as rattles, mirrors, etc.) is included with the book.

The second type of curriculum materials are kits. Kits include not only a guide of activities or how to use the equipment provided, but they must also provide at least some of the equipment or materials necessary to carry out the activities. The Early Childhood Series is an example of a kit. Included in the Series is a curriculum guide, picture books for the children, records, and filmstrips.

Curriculum materials are identified as either kits or guides in the Bibliography of Curriculum Materials.

ORGANIZATION OF THE CHART

A chart has been developed to present the many different curriculum materials suitable for preschool affective development. This method of presentation was selected to aid teachers and professionals in identifying appropriate curriculum. Included in the chart are: (1) the name of the curriculum material, (2) the age range covered by the curriculum material, (3) who the curriculum material deals with, and (5) the modes of presentation the curriculum material uses.

The age breakdown is in six month blocks for the first year. After the first year an age breakdown in 12 month periods is used.

The chart also includes a section identifying appropriate curriculum users. Listed in this section are parents, paraprofessionals, teachers, and other professionals. Parent refers to anyone who is in a caretaker position with the child. This includes natural parents, foster care, etc. Paraprofessionals include teacher aides, nurses aides, persons in training positions, such as student teachers, psychological interns, etc. Teachers includes only those persons directly responsible for the teaching of the child (not parents). The last possible curriculum user identified is other professionals, which encompasses doctors, psychologists, nurses, social workers, etc., that might use curriculum materials.

The next section of the chart deals with the areas of development. These are emergence of self, caretaker attachment, adaptation-mastery, self-concept, and socialization. All of these areas of development are discussed in Chapter One.

The final section of the chart addresses the mode of presentation. The first of these is manipulative activities. By this is meant any task in which the child is actively involved, not just sitting and listening. Manipulative activities can include group discussions, hands on experiences, etc. The next area is records and cassettes. This means any auditory mode of presentation other than teacher/parent reading. Curriculum materials that might also be included in this category are songs, radio programs, etc. Picture books and posters comprise another area of presentation. Included in this mode is any visual material that is not moving or changing. Some material in this area might include drawings, bulletin boards, flannel board cut-outs, etc. The final mode of presentation, filmstrips/movies, includes any changing visual materials. Television, view masters, and film loops are examples of this area.

NAME OF CURRICULUM MATERIALS	AGE						DESIGNED FOR USE BY				DIMENSIONS					MODE OF PRESENTATION			
	0-6	6-12	12-24	24-36	36-48	48-50	Parent	Paraprof.	Professional	Teacher	Emergence of Self	Caretaker Attachment	Adapt Master	Self-Concept	Socialization	Manip. Activities	Records/ Cassettes	Picture Books/ Posters	Filmstrip/ Movies
THE AMAZING LIFE GAMES THEATER				X	X	X		X		X			X	X	X	X			
BABY LEARNING THROUGH BABY PLAY	X	X	X				X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X			
BIG BOX: BODY AND SELF AWARENESS					X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X		X	
CHILD AND HIS WORLD						X		X	X	X			X	X	X		X		
DEVELOPING INDIVIDUAL VALUES IN THE CLASSROOM					X	X		X		X				X	X	X			
DEVELOPING UNDERSTANDING OF SELF AND OTHERS (DUSO)						X		X	X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	
THE DEVELOPMENT OF FEELINGS IN CHILDREN	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X
DISCOVER: SELF & SOCIETY						X		X		X				X	X			X	X
EARLY CHILDHOOD SERIES				X	X	X		X		X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X
EYE GATE FILM STRIPS						X		X	X	X			X	X	X		X		X
FOCUS ON SELF DEVELOPMENT						X		X		X			X	X	X	X		X	X
HUMAN DEVELOPMENT PROJECT					X	X			X	X	X			X	X	X			
KINDLE						X		X	X	X			X	X	X		X		X
MAPPS, SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL PROGRAM	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X		
THE OLYMPUS SYSTEM OF HOME-BASED EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X
PACEMAKER PRIMARY CURRICULUM LEVEL A						X		X		X					X	X		X	
PEABODY EARLY EXPERIENCES KIT (PEEK)				X	X	X			X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	
PEABODY LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT - KIT P.					X	X			X	X			X	X	X	X		X	

NAME OF CURRICULUM MATERIALS	AGE						DESIGNED FOR USE BY				DIMENSIONS					MODE OF PRESENTATION			
	0-6	6-12	12-24	24-36	36-48	48-50	Parent	Paraprof.	Professional	Teacher	Emergence of Self	Caretaker Attachment	Adapt Master	Self-Concept	Socialization	Manip. Activities	Records/ Cassettes	Picture Books/ Posters	Filmstrip/ Movies
THE PORTAGE GUIDE TO EARLY EDUCATION	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			
PRESCHOOL SPECIAL EDUCATION PROJECT	X	X	X	X			X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X			
THE MOST IMPORTANT PERSON					X	X		X		X			X	X	X			X	X
PROJECT ME					X	X		X		X			X	X	X	X	X		X
SEED DEVELOPMENTAL ACTIVITIES	X	X	X	X					X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			
SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT-TEACHING PICTURES					X	X		X		X				X	X			X	
THE SOCIAL LEARNING CURRICULUM						X		X	X	X			X	X	X	X			
STEPTEXT						X		X		X					X			X	
TEACH YOUR BABY	X	X	X	X			X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X			
THRESHOLD EARLY LEARNING LIBRARY					X	X		X		X				X	X	X			
TOY LENDING LIBRARY							X	X			X			X	X	X	X		X
YOUR CHILDS INTELLECT: A GUIDE TO HOME-BASED PRESCHOOL EDUCATION	X	X	X	X	X	X	X				X	X	X	X	X	X			

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF CURRICULUM MATERIALS

THE AMAZING LIFE GAMES THEATER (Kit) is by Ethel Young and is published by Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. This program was designed for use with normal preschool and kindergarten children. It is appropriate for use with some handicapped children. The areas covered in the program are divided into the following areas: Social studies, the arts, science, communication skills, and mathematics. The main concentration of affective development is in the area of awareness of self and awareness of others. The program consists of five eight-minute films, the Big Box: (a box containing samples of the materials needed for the five subject areas), and a file box of activities for each subject area. The activities included in the activity box are sequential in the development of the cognitive skills. The complete set is available through the publisher for $549.00. The activity box and Big Box are available separately for $112.50.

BABY LEARNING THROUGH BABY PLAY; A PARENTS GUIDE FOR THE FIRST TWO YEARS (Guide) by Ira J. Gorden, published by St. Martins Press, New York. This book is a practical guide containing activities for normal children ages birth through two years. These tasks include games for parents to play with their infants at home. The activities are designed to enhance the development of children in many areas. Many of the activities are readiness activities. The activities in this guide could easily be adapted for handicapped children. The cost of this book is $3.95.

BIG BOX: BODY AND SELF-AWARENESS (Kit) was developed by Developmental Learning Materials (DLM) for use with young children. The program is designed to develop self-awareness, body awareness, the body's relation in space, and how the body relates to other living things. The kit consists of body puzzles, children puzzles, body concept spirit masters, body concept templates, spatial relation picture cards, bean bags, and a file of 180 activity cards. These activity cards are broken into two categories: body awareness and self-awareness. The Big Box: Body and Self-Awareness kit is available from the publisher at 7440 Natchez Avenue, Niles, Illinois, for the cost of $50.00.

CHILD AND HIS WORLD (Kit) published by Society for Visual Education, Inc. is a series of 12 recordings that provide the child with information necessary to understanding himself, his role as a family member, a student, and a friend. These recordings are not accompanied by any visual materials, thus they are appropriate for the severely visually handicapped and blind child. They are designed for children ages 4 and 5. The set includes: My Family and I, Taking Care of Myself, My World, Helping is a Good Thing, The Magic of Words, Laughing and Playing. The set of recordings is available through the publisher for $5.95 per individual record or $60.00 for the complete set.

DEVELOPING INDIVIDUAL VALUES (Guide) by Richard and Geri Curwin is a guide designed for use in elementary schools. The tasks outlined in this book are excellent for developing skills in the affective area. The tasks are easy to follow and straight forward. Most of the tasks in this book could easily be adapted for preschool handicapped children. This book is available through Learning Handbooks, 530 University Avenue, Palo Alto, California.

DEVELOPING UNDERSTANDING OF SELF AND OTHERS (DUSO) (Kit) was developed by Don Dinkmeyer for the teaching of social and emotional behaviors to children five and six years old. This kit includes puppets, props, activity cards (for dramatization), storybooks, posters and a teacher's manual. This program uses a listening, inquiry and discussion approach to learning. The teacher's manual provides an easy-to-follow approach to the tasks. This program is available through the American Guidance Service, Publisher's Building, Circle Pines, Minnesota, for the cost of $115.00.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF FEELINGS IN CHILDREN (Guide) is one filmstrip set in a series of filmstrips developed by Parents Magazine to aid parents in teaching children to deal with their emotions. The film titles included are: The Development of Feelings in Children; "How Feelings Grow", "How to Deal with Fear", "Love and Joy", and "Anger and Sadness". The other filmstrip series by Parents Magazine are: The Child's Relationship with the Family, The Child's Point of View, and Preparing the Child for Learning. The Development of Feelings in Children presents situations that trigger love, fear, anger, joy, and other responses. Ways in which an adult can encourage a child to express his feelings and to detect true feelings are presented. These filmstrips are designed for use by parents and paraprofessionals in teaching children. Each filmstrip set consists of five color filmstrips and cassettes and a discussion guide for a cost of $50.00. The filmstrips are available through Parents Magazine.

DISCOVER: SELF AND SOCIETY (Kit) by Rick Heber and Elizabeth Nardine is a program which focuses around 30 color prints. Each of these prints employs a high interest, sensitive portrayal of a scene or situation. The prints simulate a wide range of moods, emotions, feelings, and attitudes common to the young child. Also included in the program is a teacher's manual with guidelines for presentation. The three areas covered in the series are: self, self and others, and children and society. Optional filmstrips of the prints are also available. This program is available through Follett Publishing Company, Department DM, 1010 West Washington Blvd., Chicago, Illinois.

EARLY CHILDHOOD SERIES (Kit) written by Ruth Jaynes, et al. and published by Bowmar, Los Angeles,consists of a set of correlated materials to develop language, conceptual learning, positive self-concept, motor-perceptual learning, and intellectual growth. The material is presented in three parts. The first part, About Myself, teaches family relationships, likes and dislikes, etc. The second part, The World Around Me, develops concepts in the areas of social relationships, color, courtesy, differences, etc. The third part, I Talk, I Think, I Reason, discusses the concepts of awareness of the world, investigating the unknown, etc. Each part of the Early Childhood Series consists of five picture books and five corresponding records. In addition to the basic book and record sets, there are filmstrips available for each part and sets of study prints (poster) for each part. Each of these items may be purchased separately. The cost for a complete set, including two of each book, teacher's guide, records, filmstrips, and study prints is $390.00.

EYE GATE HOUSE (Kit) is a publishing company that deals exclusively in filmstrips. They have a vast range of filmstrips dealing with all areas of learning. A review of their materials found the following filmstrips appropriate for preschool affective development:

Further Values	$58.25
Following Direction	$38.85
Values	$54.00
Why Do We . . . ?	$60.00
What's Around Us?	$54.00
The "Be Kind" Stories	$49.50
We're Growing Up	$36.00
Little Things That Count	$80.00

Each of the filmstrips include a choice of record or cassette recording. The filmstrips included here are appropriate for preschool, kindergarten, and early elementary school children. These filmstrips might also be used with selected populations of handicapped children. The filmstrips are available through Eye Gate House, 146-01 Archer Avenue, Jamaica, New York.

FOCUS ON SELF-DEVELOPMENT-STAGE ONE: AWARENESS (Kit) developed by Judith Anderson, Carole Lang, and Virginia Scott is a program emphasizing the development of awareness of self, others, and environment. The topics included in the program are: self-concept development, awareness of the environment through the senses, socialization, sharing, and problem solving. The teachers guide includes activities, discussion topics, unit plans, and other suggestions for affective growth and development. This program was designed for use with children in kindergarten through second grade, but it is easily adaptable for preschool. The components of the program are the teacher's guide, five filmstrips with cassettes or records, photoboards, student activity book. The complete kit costs $172.67 (with records) or

$189.74 (with cassettes). The cassettes are also available in Spanish. The program is available through Science Research Associates, Inc., 259 East Erie Street, Chicago, Illinois, 60611.

HUMAN DEVELOPMENT PROJECT (Guide) by Harold Bessel is a fairly complex program guide for normal 3 to 5 year olds. This program outlines objectives and then uses a group dynamics or group discussion procedure. The procedures for carrying out the objectives and tasks are stated simply and in a straight forward manner. This program could be adapted for handicapped children. This guide is available through the Human Development Training Institute, Inc., 4455 Twain Street, Suite H, San Diego, California.

KINDLE (Kit) by Edward Carini, et al. is a filmstrip program that was designed to help the young child gain a better understanding of himself and his social environment. The child is encouraged to express his own feelings and emotions about what he sees. A teacher's guide for each unit provides discussion questions and teaching suggestions, lesson guides, bibliographies, and a text of the narration. The filmstrips included in the set are:

Kindle I	Who Am I?
Kindle II	How Do I Learn?
Kindle III	Getting Along
Kindle IV	Mixing In
Kindle V	I Can Tell

The films were designed for use with normal children, five years and older. With a minimum of revisions the lesson guides and discussion questions could be used with handicapped children. Kindle is available through Scholastic Magazines, 904 Sylvan Avenue, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632. Each unit, consisting of five filmstrips and five cassettes, costs $69.50.

MAPPS' SOCIAL/EMOTIONAL PROGRAM (Guide) by Helen Casto and Vicky Hoagland is a program designed for use with normal and handicapped children. The program has developed 20 objectives important in the development of affect in preschool children. Each objective has several suggestions of tasks used in developing that objective. The program is very systematic, giving criterion and rationale for each objective. This guide is currently being field tested by the Multi-Agency Project for Preschoolers (MAPPS) at the University Affiliated Exceptional Child Center, Logan, Utah and will be available after revisions.

THE OLYMPUS SYSTEM OF HOME-BASED EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION (Kit), published by Olympus Publishing Company, Salt Lake City, Utah is a system of early childhood education with all components necessary for a comprehensive program. This system begins with an introductory film used to stimulate interest. Other components of this system are the teacher training (inservice training) and the parent training packages. The training packages consists of filmstrips, cassettes, and T. H. Bell's book, Your Child's Intellect. In addition, a toy lending library and guide to the use of the toys is included. This system starts with the child's development at birth, explaining to parents and teachers what factors influence the child's development. Activities are provided to aid parents and teachers in the programming of their child's development. This program provides an excellent training package for both parents and teachers. Although the program was designed for normal children, because it deals with very early development it is also appropriate for handicapped children. The

Olympus System's components may be purchased separately or as a total system. The prices of indidivdual components are: Introductory Film, $175.00; Teaching Toy Library and Guide, $75.00; Inservice Training Package, $128.00; Parent Training Package, $192.00; T. H. Bell's book (soft cover) $4.95 each (ten are included in complete package).

PACEMAKER PRIMARY CURRICULUM: LEVEL A (Kit) by Dorothea and Sheila Ross is a program designed for educable mentally retarded children in kindergarten. This program teaches socialization skills, including appropriate social behaviors. The kit contains a lesson book, picture pack, spirit master, family figures (26 cardboard cutouts used primarily in the social aspect of the program) and a teacher's guide. The lessons in the program are sequential and cover preskills for all academic areas and socialization. Also included in the series are levels for first grade through third grade (Levels B-D). Level A costs $128.00. A complete set of Pacemaker Primary Curriculum is available through Fearon Publishing Company, Belmont, California.

PEABODY EARLY EXPERIENCES KIT (PEEK) (kit) is a kit of activities designed to enhance the cognitive, affective, and oral language development of average 2 to 4 year olds. The lessons are arranged in sequential order. Included in the kit are 2 lesson manuals, a teacher's guide, puppets, language cards, posters, photocards, templates, records, musical instruments, and other manipulative objects. The teacher's guide categorizes the activities into content areas and the goal emphasis. The lesson manuals have an easy-to-follow format, giving lists of the materials needed for the lessons, objectives, and instructions for teaching the lesson. The PEEK program is available through American Guidance Service, Inc., Circle Pines, Minnesota 55914 for a cost of $260.00 a complete set.

PEABODY LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT KIT, LEVEL P (Kit) is a kit developed primarily for language development. The Peabody Kit is appropriate for slow or disadvantaged kindergarten children, trainable and educable retarded children. The program is well sequenced, and involves the children in hands on experiences. This kit is the first of four kits in a continuum of language development. The language skills taught have a great deal of carryover to the area of affective development, especially the area of socialization and adaptation-mastery. The kit contains a teacher's manual, stimulus cards, story posters, recordings, puppets, and other manipulative objects. The cost of the entire kit is $186.00, although the individual components of the kit may be purchased separately. The kit is available through American Guidance Service, Inc., Publishers Building, Circle Pines, Minnesota.

THE PORTAGE GUIDE TO EARLY EDUCATION (Guide) is a guide to curriculum for children ages 0-6. This guide provides a sequential list of behaviors to be taught. This list refers to a file of suggested methods of teaching the skill. The cards within the file also provide suggestions for sub-goals, based on a task analysis of the skill. The Portage Guide deals with all areas of development including special tasks for social and emotional development. The Portage Guide to Early Education is available through the Portage Project, Cooperative Education Service Agency - 12, 412 East Slifer Street, Portage, Wisconsin 53901.

PRESCHOOL SPECIAL EDUCATION PROJECT (Guide) is a guide developed by City School District of Rochester, New York. This program was designed to enhance the development and learning of handicapped children, birth through six years old. The guide focuses on six general areas of development: gross and fine motor development, self-help, language, social/emotional skills, and cognitive skills. The tasks utilized to develop these skills are presented in a sequential, developmental pattern. The tasks require no special equipment other than household items. This program is available through the Preschool Special Education Program, 95 Herman Street, Rochester, New York 14605.

THE MOST IMPORTANT PERSON (Kit) was developed by the Encyclopedia Britiannica Company. These movies, each about 15 minutes long, were developed for early school age children. They are so simple they could easily be used with handicapped children. These films deal with some social/emotional areas and cognitive areas concerned with personal health and hygiene. These films are often available through regional film lending libraries or through the Encyclopedia Britiannica Company for $64.00 per film or $2,595.00 for the entire set.

PROJECT ME (Kit) was developed by Bowmar Publishing Company, Los Angeles. This kit consists of a large "learning wall" upon which large pictures are projected from the rear. The child is asked to interact with the picture on the screen, with other children, and with the teacher. The children look, listen, move, feel, and respond at their own rate. The concepts dealt with in Project Me are body image, visual perception, feelings, cause and effect, size discrimination, form perception, and directionality. The kit has four separate parts. They are: Body Image, Level I ($140.00), Body Image, Level II ($80.00), Let's Look For ($89.00), and Moving Day ($64.00).

SEED DEVELOPMENTAL ACTIVITIES (Guide) is a guide of activities for preschool multiply handicapped children compiled by the Sewall Early Education Developmental Program in Denver, Colorado. The activities include a vast range in the areas of social/emotional development, gross motor, fine motor, adaptive reasoning, receptive language, expressive language, feeding, dressing, and simple hygiene. Each task includes major and minor objectives met by that task. Some tasks require simple, easy to acquire equipment. The tasks have easy-to-follow directions. The guide costs $1.50.

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT-TEACHING PICTURES (Kit) is a set of 11 by 14 inch color drawings with a teacher resource sheet for each picture. The pictures are designed to aid children, ages 5 years and older, in social development. Aspects of social development included in the pictures are: sharing, working and playing with peers, and helping others. The pictures and resource sheets are designed for use with normal children, but with some modifications in the tasks and questions included on the resource sheet this program could be used with handicapped children. The pictures are available through the David C. Cook Publishing Company for $2.25 per set.

THE SOCIAL LEARNING CURRICULUM (Guide) by Herbert Goldstein is a guide for teaching children how to perceive themselves, how to respond to their environments, and how to develop acceptable adaptive behaviors. The guide provides objectives for each phase of the curriculum and a rationale for each objective. There are lesson plans for each objective including methods for teaching and suggested additional activities. This program was designed for kindergarten and primary school aged children. Because of its sequential, highly structured format it is appropirate for some handicapped children. The Social Learning Curriculum is available through Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1300 Alum Creek Road, Columbus, Ohio 43216 for $195.00.

STEPTEST (Kit) by Dr. Rick Heber and Dr. Howard Garber is a series of picture books with a teacher read text. The 22 storybooks focus on personal development, language and cognitive development, and leisure time development. The teacher's guide presents information on early childhood development as well as a variety of classroom activities. The books are sequenced and designed to aid the child in the transition from unstructured play to beginning school experiences. These books are designed for use with five-year-old normal children but because of the nature of the picture books could be used with handicapped children. The Steptext program is available through Follett Publishing Company, Department DM, 1010 West Washington Blvd., Chicago, Illinois 60607 for $39.99.

TEACH YOUR BABY (Guide) by Genevieve Painter, published by Simon and Schuster, New York, is a book full of developmental activities for home based teaching. The activities included are for normal children but many are applicable for handicapped children. Although the book does not present objectives for the tasks presented, its approach is systematic in teaching several cognitive areas. There is sufficient carryover from these cognitive areas to the affective area to include this guide in this manuscript. The cost of this book is $7.95.

THE THRESHOLD EARLY LEARNING LIBRARY (Guide) by Jean Drost, Carol Elby, Rachael Kamp, and Estelle Lader consists of three volumes of curriculum guides to help the teacher make the most of materials found in the classrooms. Volume III is Developing Language Competence and Social Concepts. This volume includes activities for developing concepts in the areas of individual (self), family, school groups (peers), and community. These guides were designed for use with normal primary school age children. With some revisions the special education teacher could use them for handicapped preschoolers. Each of the guides cost $7.95 and are available through McMillian Company, School Division, Front and Brown Street, Riverside, New York.

THE TOY LENDING LIBRARY (Kit) is a set of eight educational toys and assorted parent training materials suggested to be used in a workshop setting for training parents to use the toys to enhance their child's development. These materials were compiled by Glen Nimnicht and Edna Brown. These toys are designed to prepare children for school and are utilized to foster the development of language, perception skills, self-concept, concept formation, and problem solving. This set consists of eight filmstrips on the eight basic educational toys (cost $100.00), Set of Toys ($75.00), Parents Guide I and II (each $1.25), Teacher's Aide Handbook ($2.10), and Teacher Training Notebook ($7.50). These materials are available through Silver Burdett Company, 250 James Street, Morristown, New Jersey.

YOUR CHILD'S INTELLECT: A GUIDE TO HOME-BASED PRESCHOOL EDUCATION (Guide) by T. H. Bell is a book for parents. The book provides a month by month guide to normal child's development and intellectual growth. The book is illustrated with step-by-step understandable directions for key learning experiences. The book also contains a guide to common household items that can be used as educational toys. Also contained in the book is a section on the use of positive reinforcement. The book emphasizes the development of positive self-concept through the development of other skill areas. Although this book was designed with normal children in mind, it is very appropriate for use with handicapped children. The book is available through Olympus Publishing Company, Salt Lake City, Utah for $6.95 (hard cover) or $4.95 (soft cover).

CHAPTER V

IDENTIFICATION OF INFORMATION GAPS AND PROPOSED RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

IDENTIFICATION OF INFORMATION GAPS AND PROPOSED RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

There are several information gaps in the affective area which have been identified. In the following section, the gaps are first described in general terms; then a case is made for inter- and intra-agency cooperation in addressing the information gaps. Next, intervention research paradigms are suggested for answering specific questions. The specific research and development objectives recommended for the affective area are then listed in outline form together with strategies for achieving the objectives, funding responsibilities, etc.

INFORMATION GAP 1

No clear explanation of the course of affective development exists. That is, theories of affective development and emotion abound. However, a clear exposition of affective development, anchored to available research findings, would serve a valuable function in stimulating both basic and applied research and suggesting intervention strategies. Building upon available knowledge, studies addressing the affective competencies required to reach each developmental milestone should be carried out. These studies should address clearly defined handicapping conditions as well as handicapping conditions from a non-categorical viewpoint.

INFORMATION GAP 2

For many years researchers have stressed the importance of cognitive factors in development. Recently, a view has emerged which holds that affect serves as a primary motivator and organizer of development and that affect in the infant enhances cognitive development (Sroufe & Waters, 1976). A primary information gap exists with regards to the complex relationships and interactions between cognitive and affective development. Again, longitudinal studies could tease out these relationships. Examples of specific questions which could be addressed in this area include:

> What are the implications of lags in one developmental domain for other domains?
>
> How do specific affective experiences serve as setting events for cognitive development?

INFORMATION GAP 3

It would be extremely useful to delineate the characteristics of the affectively "competent" infant. Studies of this type would of necessity require looking at the affectively competent child at age five and then developing a profile of affective competence. Once this profile is developed a look backward could reveal particulars of the interactions between early experience and the development of such competence. Much useful information relating to this effort already exists in the work of White & Watts (1973) and others.

INFORMATION GAP 4

In the affective area, probably as much as in any other developmental area, there is an information gap with regards to the parameters of an ecological system which promotes healthy affective development. For certain children the critical forces which havea major impact on development lie neither within the child nor within his family but in the impoverished, desperate circumstances in which the family is forced to live. Skodak & Skeels (1949) dramatically proved effectiveness of environmental intervention by demonstrating significant I.Q. gains in mental retardates when they were removed from the institution. Assessing and altering environments to foster healthy affective growth requires a long needed research and intervention technology.

INFORMATION GAP 5

An information gap exists with regards to curriculum which addresses affective skills in the age period birth to three. Currently, through the Handicapped Children's Early Education Projects, and other projects, curriculum materials have been developed which address affective development above age three. What is needed is a systematic curriculum addressing certain critical affective dimensions up to age three. The curriculum should be goal referenced and individualized to the extent that it speaks to specific affective characteristics. For example, we know how crucial it is to the child's development that he form an attachment relationship. Developing attachments is one of the critical dimensions addressed in curriculum development efforts.

INFORMATION GAP 6

As in the case of affective curriculum, an information gap exists in the assessment of affect in children up to age three. However, the need also exists for a standardized, comprehensive, social competence scale for the child of 3-5. For the very young child a criterion referenced scale of affective development which extends from birth to age three is needed. This scale should be derived from the major affective dimensions betwen the ages of 0-3. It should be goal referenced and individualized.

Specific Research and Development Questions and Suggested Strategies

Adequate research and/or development in six broad information areas is likely to require massive amounts of funding. Certainly, if each area were funded independently this would be true. In addition, two of the areas suggest basic research activities which are outside the purview of the Bureau of

Education for the Handicapped. How then, with limited funding, could the six broad areas be addressed? The answer lies in a combination of: (1) inter- and intra-agency cooperation and (2) an overall research strategy of using intervention research paradigms in attacking the information gap areas. The reasons for suggesting the above combination are as follows:

1. Within the various divisions of the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped are funding resources which could be brought to bear on the information gaps with the Research Division orchestrating the effort.

For example, an extremely large number of HCEEP projects are being funded for a three-year funding period that could effectively address some of the information gaps if the information gaps were brought to the attention of grant applicants as they prepare and submit proposals. In addition, some technical assistance related to intervention design techniques might be required. Present projects are already funded to demonstrate that early intervention works. The next logical step is to focus some of these efforts in the affective area.

2. Currently, the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, the National Institute of Mental Health, and the Office of Child Development are funding research and development efforts in the affective area. While the current efforts are not duplicative, closer coordination of inter-agency efforts could result in bringing more resources to bear on the basic information gap areas. The Bureau of Education for the Handicapped has already demonstrated its willingness to move in this direction. These efforts could be easily expanded.

3. Intervention research is applied research. It also has the potential to answer basic research questions. The rationale for utilizing intervention research paradigms to address some of the information gaps lies in the fact that intervention research is being supported heavily in the preschool areas and that intervention research designs lend themselves to filling in the information gaps while at the same time accomplishing a socially useful purpose. When we consider the problem of how to structure the affective experiences of the first few years of a child's life, or consider the problem of how to explicate the interaction between cognition and affect, intervention designs can provide basic answers and serve socially useful functions as well.

Information gaps 1, 2, 3, and 4 could be addressed with a single longitudinal study conducted over a period of 5 years. The design of the study could follow the general outline of White's study (1973) but would focus on affective development. The study would include the following phases.

Phase 1 - Identify and list the behaviors which make one affectively competent at ages 1, 2, 3, and 4.

Phase 2 - Identify three target populations:

1. A population of normal children exhibiting a wide range of affective competencies.
2. A population of handicapped children exhibiting affective competence.
3. A population of handicapped children exhibiting a lack of affective competence.

Phase 3 - Study the processes of optimal and restricted development of affective competence occurring naturally in target group one.

Phase 4 - Study the processes of optimal development of affective competence occurring naturally in target group one.

Phase 5 - Isolate the major differences in the patterns of experience of the three target groups.

Phase 6 - Identify in target group two the environmental conditions which impinge on the development of affective competence.

Phase 7 - Provide and evaluate interventions suggested from phase 3, 4, 5, and 6.

The addition of an intervention group to the design allows for generation and testing of hypotheses through the longitudinal period. Findings from the ethological studies of groups one and two could be translated into intervention terms and tested continuously. The intervention paradigm recommended by Brofenbrenner (1975) includes family centered intervention, ecological intervention, and pre-school intervention using a sequential strategy in providing interventions. Also, single subject experimental design could test intervention hypotheses in situations where this is feasible.

Funding for the longitudinal study could come from several sources. The funding alternatives include:

1. Funding an experimental program through the HCEEP network. Since this network is changing its program format after this year with the intent to fund 4 or 5 experimental programs on a long-term basis (5 years at least), it would seem to be a logical source of funding.

2. Funding an experimental program jointly through the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped and the Office of Child Development. This would result in benefits to both agencies, since nearly all of the findings would be applicable to programs conducted by both agencies.
3. The total program could be broken into two parts with the National Institute of Mental Health funding the study of group one and Bureau of Education for the Handicapped and Office of Child Development jointly funding the study of groups two and three.

Information gaps five and six could be addressed partly by way of the longitudinal research described above and partly by other means. The development of assessment devices would be undertaken as an essential aspect of the longitudinal study. The development of systematic curricula could be accomplished either by having an HCEEP demonstration project assume the responsibility or through a Research Division sponsored RFP.

In summary, the role of the Research Division would be to:

1. Stimulate interest in research on the information gaps in the affective area.
2. Pursue liaisons with other divisions within the Bureau which could fund information gap research through intervention programs.
3. Participate in a modest way in funding a longitudinal research project.
4. Provide technical assistance to those HCEEP projects wishing to address the information gaps as part of their demonstration programs.

Suggested Research Division Priorities

Priority 1 - Validate information gaps specified in this RFP.

Priority 2 - Disseminate information gaps and proposed research and development strategies to Research Division and Program Development Branch mailing lists.

Priority 3 - Establish liaisons with other divisions within the Bureau and other H.E.W. agencies.

Priority 4 - Fund longitudinal intervention study. (Preferably through HCEEP experimental programs).

Priority 5 - Issue RFP to fund required curriculum development project.

References

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Skodak, and Skeels, H. M. A study of environmental stimulation: An orphanage preschool project. University of Iowa Studies on Child Welfare, 1938, 15, 4.

Sroufe, A. L. and Waters, E. The ontogenesis of smiling and laughter: A perspective on the organization of development in infancy. Psychological Review, in press, 1976.

White, B. L., and Watts, J. C. Experience and Environment: Major Influences on the Development of the Young Child. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

APPENDIX

ANNOTATED BIBILOGRAPHY FOR AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY
FOR
AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT

Overview

Following is an annotated bibliography of references related to affective development in the normal and handicapped preschool child. Also included are readings related to affective education and curriculum and instrumentation and research methodology for the study of affective development.

An effort has been made to identify those readings which are especially informative within each section of the bibliography. These sources are noted (with an asterik *) for the reader's convenience.

I. Readings Related to Theories of Emotion and Overviews of Affective Development in Children.

Arnold, M.B. Emotion and Personality Volume I: Psychological Aspects Volume II: Neurological and Physiological Aspects. New York: Columbia University Press, 1960.

This work represents an attempt to survey the area of emotion and bring some order into the field by formulating a theory that can integrate the psychological, neurological, and physiological aspects of affective phenomena and place emotion in its proper perspective as a factor in personality organization. It is demonstrated that a phenomenological analysis of emotional experience can guide us in identifying the brain structures and pathways that mediate feelings and emotions. The theory formulated focuses on brain circuits mediating various psychological activities. Volume I stresses psychological aspects of emotion and personality organization and includes a historical review of theories of feeling and emotion, a phenomenological analysis, and a theory of emotion that seems to be supported by research and experience. In the second volume the available neurophysiological and physiological evidence is reviewed and integrated into a connected theory of brain function. Emotion is then shown to be a factor in personality organization. Useful in reviewing theories of emotion and in formulating a theory that integrates psychological, neurological, and physiological aspects of affect.

Arnold, M.B. (Ed.) Feelings and Emotions: The Loyola Symposium. New York: Academic Press, 1970.

This book is a collection of papers presented at the Loyola Symposium on Feelings and Emotions. The papers are as follows: (1) Emotions, evolution, and adaptive processes; (2) The biological origin of love and hate; (3) Feelings as monitors; (4) The affective dimension of pain; (5) Emotion: some conceptual problems and psychophysiological experiments; (6) Affect as the primary motivational system; (7) The assumption of identify and peripheralist-centralist controversies in motivation and emotion; (8) C.G. Jung's contribution to "Feelings and Emotions": Synopsis and implications; (9) Cognition and feeling; (10) The information theory of emotion; (11) the motivational and perceptual properties of emotions as indicating their fundamental character and role; (12) Perennial problems in the field of emotion; (13) The education of emotions; (14) Towards a cognitive theory of emotion; (15) the attitudinal character of emotions; (16) Emotion and recognition of emotion; (17) A dictionary and grammar of emotion; (18) Mood: Behavior and experience; (19) Emotional polarity in personality structure; and (2) Feeling as bases of knowing and recognizing the other as an ego. Useful in presenting an array papers on theory and research in feelings and emotions.

Bernard, H.W. Child Development and Learning. Boston, Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon, Incorporated, 1973. (Chapter 8 - Motivation and Personality)

Motivation is defined in various ways but the most common understanding is that it refers to using well what one has in order to achieve goals that the individual and society deem to be significant. It includes such things as energy, interests, goal striving, aspirations, needs, and social requirements and expectations. Physiological factors in motivation include neural action, endocrine factors, and in clinical cases, drugs.

There are many theories of motivation based on various statements of needs. A recent addition to such theories is the concept of heterostasis - the postulation that a healthy organism or child, needs to grow, to become, and to exercise potential capacities. Maslow developed a need theory of motivation, which is based on a hierarchical order and explains why needs vary in degree of insistence of various times. These needs are physiological, safety, love and belonging, esteem, and self-actualization.

Factors in motivation that have pertinent implications for child development include key person, traumatic episodes, and the urge to be creative in terms of achieving unique individuality. Most of what can be said regarding environmental factors in motivation and much concerning intrinsic motivation can be epitomized in terms of the ego-concept. One aspires to those things that he believes are possible for him. A sturdy ego-concept becomes a prime consideration in the genesis and maintenance of achievement and growth motivation in children. Useful in providing a practical overview of motivation and need theory.

Bijou, S.W., and Baer, D.M. Child Development II Universal Stage of Infancy. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1965. (Chapter 3 - Psychological Analysis of the Neonate and Chapter 4 - Further Considerations in the Psychological Analysis of the Neonate)

The volume provides a behavioral analysis of the infant's development up to about the second year. In general, neonatal interactions consist of a unified stimulus-response system and environmental events. Emotion is viewed as a "general term referring to interactions between stimulating conditions and broad but definite patterns of certain respondent behaviors, possibly involving certain operant components" (p. 46). These patterns are identified as the activation syndrome, distress, delight, relaxed state, and quiescence (some of these are overlapping or synonymous). These states are identified according to antecedent conditions and response patterns but there may also be operant components. Useful in providing a behavioral analysis of infant development.

Caldwell, B.M., and Richmond, J.B. The Impact of Theories of Child Development. In F. Rebelsky and L. Dorman (Eds.), Child Development and Behavior. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1973. P. 5-12.

During 20th century, three theoretical systems about child development have made major inroads into the personal learning theories of American parents: the behavioristic (or social learning); the maturational (Gesell); and the psychoanalytic. These theories are discussed in terms of their implications for child-rearing practices. The authors make some predictions about future theories. Useful in providing a practical description of behavioristic, maturational, and psychoanalytic theories in relation to child development.

Darwin, Charles. The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1896.

Darwin expresses three principles which he considers functional enough to service inquiry into all emotions, those of humans and animals. First of all, "movements which are serviceable in gratifying some desire, or in relieving some sensation, if often repeated, become so habitual that they are performed, whether or not of any service, whenever the same desire or sensation is felt, even in a very weak degree" p. 398. The second principle, that of antithesis, simply states that there will be a strong and involuntary tendency to perform actions opposite to those currently being expressed when one is excited toward an opposite state. Thirdly, some emotional expression is the direct result of excitement of the nervous system. Thus, emotions are expressed or experienced in many domains. Some actions are purely reflexive and cannot be affected by the "will". Many emotions are performed by habit (an innate) and their performance is sometimes accompanied by conscious awareness. Also, there are interactions between these forces, with each structure limiting the effect of the others. Darwin would not restrict emotion to that which is expressed from an excited state of mind, but often speaks of some emotions, such as affection, wich can exist subjectively and not necessarily be given immediate expression. Darwin cites the similarity of expressive postures for emotions within species as evidence for the innate nature of most emotions. Sometimes, practice is required before one can adequately express an emotion but very few emotions are learned by the individual within his life span. Most emotions were performed and ingrained because they were functional and adaptive. Emotions under the third principle, those of nervous system actions, are oftentimes nonfunctional and could not have been acquired and rendered habitual as were the emotions governed by the first and second principles. Such emotions, i.e., trembling, are considered to be undirected radiations of nerve-force which attempt to relieve extreme states, i.e., suffering. Darwin's explication suffers from a lack of good definition of his terms and a failure to delineate exactly what emotions are and exactly how they are aroused. His emphasis is largely on the demonstration of similarities in expression within species as he is interested in showing how emotions have evolved and come to be innate. Useful in presenting Darwin's theory of emotional expression.

Ekman, P. (Ed.) Darwin and Facial Expression. New York: Academic Press, 1973.

This book, "a century of research in review", begins with Darwin's ideas about the expression of emotions in man and animals and draws together the present thinking on the topic. Darwin's central concepts and key sources of information are reconsidered in light of the last hundred years. There is a chapter each on animals (the nonhuman primates), on infants and children, and on people in various cultures. Each of these chapters gives Darwin's ideas on the topic and then presents a critical integration of current knowledge about facial expressions of emotion. A more general chapter describes Darwin's conceptual and methodological contributions, tracing his influence through the history of psychology. The concluding chapter integrates and summarizes how Darwin's ideas have fared in light of current knowledge about facial expression. Useful in discussing emotional expression from a Darwinian perspective, integrating present knowledge.

Emde, R.N., Gaensbauer, T. J., and Harmon, R.J. Emotional Expression in Infancy; A Biobevahioral Study. New York: International Universities Press, 1967.

This book reports a study on the discontinuity of development in infancy, with Spitz's A Genetic Field Theory of Ego Formation (1959) serving as an organizer for research. The data, collected over a six year period, bear on these global propsitions: (1) Rates of behavioral and physiological development are uneven in infancy; (2) Affect behaviors are prominent indicators of times of rapid change; (3) In the determination of behavior, the proportional influence of maturation and experience will demonstrably shift toward the latter in the course of the first year; and (4) Each time of rapid change will reflect a major developmental shift to a new level of organization; this shift will be manifest by the emergence of novel functions in the infant's behavioral world. The central focus of the research is on the development of affect behaviors, especially smiling and crying during the first year. Useful in examining and researching important theoretical issues of emotional expression in infancy.

*Fantino, E., and Reynolds, G.S. Introduction to Contemporary Psychology. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman and Company, 1975. (Chapter 7 - Emotions).

This chapter considers the problem of identifying and measuring emotions, describes the major theories of activation of emotional behavior, and cites some of the important studies of pleasant and unpleasant emotions. The theories of emotion discussed include the James-Lange theory (emotional response precedes the emotional experience). The Cannon-Bard theory (emotions serve an emergency function by preparing the organism for appropriate action), Lindsley's activation theory of emotions, Mandler's Jukebox theory (production of emotion requires physiological arousal and a stimulus situation), and the current theory (activation is probably necessary but not sufficient). Studies of specific emotions are cited and emotional stress and psychosomatic disorders are also discussed. Useful in discussing the major theories of emotions and presenting the important research on pleasant and inpleasant emotions.

Frank, L.W. On the Importance of Infancy. New York: Random House, 1966.

This book attempts to focus attention upon infancy as a complex series of interrelated events, involving different disciplines and professions, agencies and individuals, with far-reaching implications for the future. Rather than systematically reviewing all the literature on infancy the writer has selected and discussed what seems to be significant and revealing for understanding the importance of infancy, hopefully to create a larger awareness of the infant's multidimensionality and the significance of his care and treatment in the initial years. Discussions of maternal separation and the infant in terms of systems theory are provided. Useful in providing a discussion of the important developments that occur during infancy and the importance of infancy as a development period.

*Freedman, D.G., Loring, C.B., and Martin, R.M. Emotional Behavior and Personality Development. In Y. Brackbill (Ed.). Infancy and Early Childhood. New York: The Free Press, 1967. p. 429-502.

The first section of this chapter provides a review of research on the infant to three-year-old and covers such topics as crying, smiling, fear and anxiety, stranger anxiety, separation anxiety, anger, and aggression. Research trends are analyzed.

Major personality development theories are presented and discussed terms of their basic assumptions and a biological approach to personality development is espoused. The advantages of a biological approach are elaborated.

Research on human attachment is presented with an emphasis on evolved mechanisms.

Useful in reviewing the research on development of major emotions during infancy, in discussing the major personality development theories, and in presenting the attachment concept from an evolutionary view.

Gardner, B. Development in Early Childhood: The Preschool Years. New York: Harper and Row, 1964. (Chapter 9- Emotional Development)

This chapter examines emotional development for the years 2 to 5. The emphasis is on understanding how normal emotional development proceeds and the course of development specific emotions is thus discussed. The early stages of emotional growth illustrate, in the gradual movement from general reactions toward more specific emotional behavior, the process of differentiation. There are also consistent changes in the patterning of emotional responses through the preschool years, which give evidence of the role of maturational factors in developments. Useful for a general understanding of normal emotional development in preschoolers.

Garrison, K.C., Kingston, A.J. and Bernard, H.W. The Psychology of Childhood. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1967. (Chapter 8 - The Development of Emotional Behavior)

The view taken is that emotions involve the total human organism and consist of three components: (1) feeling or mental state, (2) physiological disturbances, and (3) impulses to action. The issue of how emotions are acquired is spoken to and it is noted that most research workers today believe that emotional behavior is solely the result of maturation and learning and develops from the manner in which bodily needs are met or not met. Infant reflex actions are listed and the behavioral manifestations that develop out of them are outlined. Also discussed are emotional maturity and the labelling of "problem" behavior. Useful in discussing what emotion is and how it generally develops.

Gesell, A., Amatruda, C.S., Castner, B.M., and Thompson, H. Biographies of Child Development. New York: Paul B. Hoeber, Incorporated, 1939.

In this book Gesell presents studies of individual differences in the patterning of early behavior development by providing biographies of individual children. A wide variety of abnormal case studies are presented. Useful in presenting Gesell's theory of developmental and individual biographies of development.

Glass, D. C. (Ed.) Neurophysiology and Emotion. New York: Rockefeller University Press and Russell Sage Foundation, 1967.

This volume contains a series of thirteen papers delivered at a conference on biology and behavior designed to bring together scientists whose research combined neurophysiological and psycho-social determinants of emotional behavior. The proceedings were published primarily to serve as a general model for future exchanges between biologists and behavioral scientists since it is felt that both groups should pursue their research with full awareness and understanding of the relevant concerns of the other. The major sections include: (1) brain mechanisms and emotion, (2) endocrine systems and emotion, (3) autonomic activity and emotion, and (4) infantile stimulation and adult emotional reactivity. Useful in speaking to theory and research from a multidisciplinary frame in the area of neurophysiology and emotion.

Hunt, J. McV. Experience and the Development of Motivation: Some Reinterpretations. Child Development, 1960, 31, 489-504. (Also in N.S. Ender, L. R. Boulter, and H. Osser (Eds.) Contemporary Issues in Developmental Psychology.)

Some of the assumptions of the theory of motivation that has been dominant for the past 30 to 40 years are called into question. These assumptions are: (1) that all behavior is motivated and that the aim or function of every instinct, defense, action or habit is to reduce or eliminate stimulation or excitation within the nervous system and that the organism would be inactive unless driven by either inner or outer stimuli; (2) all activity is a matter of either reducing or avoiding stimulation; and (3) fear and anxiety are always inculcated as a consequence of traumatic experiences of helplessness in the face of homeostatic need or painful external stimulation. It is regarded as more desirable to embrace the thermodymamic conception of living things as open systems of energy exchange which exhibit activity intrinsically and upon which stimuli have a modulating effect, but not an initiating effect. The author offers Hebb's incongruity dissonance principle as a system which has great explanatory power. Hebb's theorizing is somewhat physiological and makes motivation and reinforcement intrinsic to the organism's relations with its environment and intrinsic to the organism's information processing. Useful in analyzing the functional value of closed and dynamic theories of motivation.

Jersild, A.T., Telford, C.W., and Sawrey, J.M. Child Psychology (7th Ed.) Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Incorporated, 1975. (Part 4 - Emotional Development.)

The first chapter in this unit speaks to the meaning of emotion, with the emphasis on affection, joy, and sexuality. The normal course of development of these emotions is outlined with reference made to theoretical underpinnings. The second chapter, on fear and anxiety, explains the role of learning and maturation in the acquisition of these emotions. Theories of fear and anxiety are presented and the normal course of development outlined. The last section on anger and hostility once again presents the developmental sequence and discusses research and theory of these emotions. Useful in outlining development of specific emotions and discussing pertinent theories of specific emotions.

*Kessen, W. Research on the Psychological Development of Infants: An Overview. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1963, 9, 83-94. (Also in I.B. Weiner and D. Elkind (Eds.) Readings in Child Development.)

Kessen presents an overview of the contemporary trends in research on the infant. He anticipates a comparative psychology of the infant and cites research such as that by Harlow as evidence of this. It has recently been recognized by researchers and theorists that infants are different, variable in response. Also, the infant is no longer viewed as incompetent. He is active and the relation of infant and caretaker is reciprocal. This shift has great implications for theorists and researchers. Useful in analyzing present research trends on the infant.

Landreth, C. Early Childhood: Behavior and Learning (2nd Ed.). New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1967. (Chapter 5 - From Six to Eighteen Months.)

This chapter examines the interrelationships between sensorimotor, speech, social, emotional, and cognitive development by looking at each area separately and discussing theories of development. The contributions of genetic inheritance, of pre and postnatal experience and of a biological developmental mechanism are noted. Relevant research is cited, including studies of social attachments in infancy, infant-mother separation, social stimulation, and the specific emotions crying, fear, and anger. A good discussion of the emergence of identifiable emotional behavior is provided. Useful in providing an overview of emotional development in the infant.

Lazarus, R. S. Emotions and Adaptation: Conceptual and empirical relations. In W. J. Arnold (Ed.). Nebraska Symposium on Motivation. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1968, p. 175-270.

A main objective of this paper was to challenge the concept of emotion as motivation. A second major theme concerned the theoretical relations between emotions and adaptation. In the last part of the paper, it was noted that all of the research of the past ten years in Lazarus' laboratory supports the theoretical proposition that cognitive activity, taking place before a harm is to be confronted or after it has been experienced is of utmost importance in understanding the emotion, arousal or reduction. To understand emotion and adaptation, it is important to determine the conditions which determine such cognitive activity and how it is related to the consequent emotional reaction. Experimental analogues involving anticipation of harm and repetition of an emotional stimulus provide useful contexts for studying the problem. In view of the evident importance of intervening cognitive activity for emotion and adaptation, it is remarkable that the problem has been so little studied. Useful in discussing conceptual and empirical considerations in the study of emotion.

Mahler, M. S., Pine, F., and Bergman, A. The Psychological Birth of the Human Infant. New York: Basic Books, 1975.

This book draws together the theory and research of Mahler and her associates on the psychological development of the infant, with emphasis on separation, individuation, adaptation, and object relationship. Part I of the book presents the theoretical background and describes the evolution and the functioning of the research setting. Part II deals with clinical study of the four subphases of the separation-individuation process and Part III presents the subphase histories of five representative children. In Part IV the results of the observational study are summarized and discussed and recommendations are made for further psychoanalytic research. Useful in presenting Mahler's psychoanalytic view of the psychological development of the infant and in presenting her research on the topic.

Mandler, G. Emotion. In New Direction in Psychology. New York: Holt, Rinehard, and Winston, 1962 p. 267-343.

This article takes a critical look at theories of emotional activation and discusses the requisities of an accurate theory of emotion. The history of the study of emotion is presented and the most influential theories are critized. A description of the Schacter experiments and their implications for a theory of emotional activation are provided. Mandler proposes the juke box theory, which views the production of emotional behavior as a two-stage process. First of all, there is activation of the viscara and secondly, selection of the emotional behavior. Useful in providing a good discussion of critical variables in the study of emotional behavior and in presenting the major theories of emotion.

Mandler, G. Mind and Emotion. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1976.

Munn, N.L. The Growth of Human Behavior (3rd Ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1974. (Chapter 10 - Emotional Development.)

Munn discusses the development of emotional behavior from birth to maturity by first giving a background of information on the experimental, behavioral, and physiological components of emotion. Evidence is presented for the contribution of both maturation and learning to emotional development. At successive age levels emotional episodes arouse an increasing number of reactions since emotional behavior becomes more complex with age. The outstanding changes in emotion as the child grows older are an increasing involvement of symbolic activities and an increasing effectiveness in coping with emotion-provoking situations. Useful in understanding how emotions develop, mostly from a learning theory perspective.

Nash, J. Developmental Psychology: A Psychobiological Approach. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1970. (Chapter 14 - Origins of Emotions and Motivation.)

Emotions are in essence the feeling tone that accompanies a need state. They are psychophysiological concomitants of a state of native arousal. Neural influences in emotional behavior are discussed. The thalamus, RAS, and brain stem, and cortex are important. At birth the cortex is immature and the newborn infant may be regarded as essentially noncorticate, with emotional responses similar to those of phylogenetically lower animals. The role of hormonal factors, such as adrenaline and the steroids, in emotions is also discussed. Nash tends to believe that genetically determined tendencies influence patterns of reaction and presents some evidence supporting this contention. The infant and young child are both neurologically and endocrinologically different from the older child in ways that markedly affect emotionality. Sources of motivation are delineated (primary needs, curiosity drives, anxiety) and motivation and emotion are differentiated. Useful in describing physiological mechanisms of emotion and in presenting motivation theory as it relates to emotion.

Pribram, K. H. Emotion: Steps toward a neurophysiological theory. In D. C. Glass (Ed.), Neurophysiology and Emotion. New York: Rockefeller University Press and Russell Sage Foundation, 1967, p. 3-39.

This article delineates the emotions as a set of processes that: (1) reflect the state of relative organization or disorganization of an ordinarily stable configuration of neural systems; and (2) reflect those mechanisms which operate to redress an imbalance, not through action, but by regulation of input. The organism's continuing stability depends on nural programs or plans -- a set of genetic and experimental memory mechanisms -- which organize the perceptions and behavior of the organism. This proposal differs in several respects from most currently held views on emotion. First, emphasis is on memory mechanisms, experientially derived as well as genetic, rather than on viscerally based drive processes. Second, the proposal takes as a baseline organized stability and its potential perturbation, rather than some arbitrary "level" of activation. Third, the proposal makes explicit the relation between emotion and motivation by linking both to an ongoing prebehavioral neural organization. Useful in expounding Pribram's neurophysiological theory of emotion.

Reese, Hayne W., and Lipsitt, Lewis P. Experimental Child Psychology. New York: Academic Press, 1970. (Chapter 12 - Emotional Development)

Approach taken concentrates on emotional behavior in infants. A discussion of response systems in newborn infants and a presentation of some of the theorizing and research in this area concludes that there is evidence that approach-type and avoidance-type responses are available in repertoire of responsiveness of newborn. Studies on the conditionability of emotional reactions (such as Watson's experiment with an infant and rat, Albert) indicate that it is quite probable that the onset and perpetuation of many emotional reactions in children are products of conditioning, with classic and operant processes operating. Authors state that smiling and laughing are not thought to be within the behavioral repertoire of the infant at birth but that experience soon facilitiates the acquisition of these behaviors. Studies presented on the appearance of smiling and the conditioning of it. Research in areas of attachment and separation anxiety are important in study of emotional development. Research looking at individual differences in early infancy is reported and the need for it emphasized. Longitudinalstudies, such as that by Kagan and Moss (1962), are needed to understand constitutional and early experience determinents of later behavior. Useful in providing a discussion of emotional behavior in the infant and child, mostly from a behavioral perspective.

Rexford, Sanders, and Shapiro. Infant Psychiatry. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University, 1976.

*Ricciuti, H.N. Social and Emotional Behavior in Infancy: Some Developmental Issues and Problems. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1968, 14, 82-100. (Also in H.E. Fitzgerald and J. McKinney (Eds.), Developmental Psychology.)

A summary of research on social and emotional behavior in infancy is provided from a historical view (beginning with Darwin and continuing to present day). Early studies tended to be mostly descriptive and did provide an over-all picture of development of infant. Major historical change has been transition from descriptive focus to contemporary emphasis on analytic studies. Two broad areas of contemporary research are discussed. One emphasis is current concern with now detailed analyses of the role of stimulus and situational determinants of social and emotional responses. Much of this research centers around mother-infant tie and separation anxiety. The second broad area deals with the discrete but related topics: (1) approach withdrawal processes, (2) exploratory behavior, curiosity, and intrinsic motivation, and (3) arousal or activation, orienting and alerting responses. The most important research in all these areas is outlined. Useful in analyzing research trends in the area of social and emotional behavior in infancy.

*Rogers D. Child Psychology. Belmont, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, 1969. (Chapter 7 - Emotional Development.)

This chapter on emotional development looks at all aspects of healthy and unhealthy behavior. Factors that modify or contribute to emotional development (biological, hereditary, prenatal, etc.) are described. Integrative emotions as they develop within the child are also presented. Fears, anxieties, guilt, hostility, and jealousy are discussed in terms of what is normal during a given age span. The last section speaks to emotional problems - natural defense mechanisms as well as professional help which is available. Useful in providing a good overview of emotional development of the child.

Schmale, Arthur H. A Genetic View of Affects. In R.S. Essler, A. Freud, H. Hartmann, and M. Kris (Eds.) The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child. Volume XIX. New York: International Universities Press, Incorporated, 1964, p. 287-310.

Schmale presents psychoanalytic view of development and differentiation of affect. It is assumed that affects have an undifferentiated form during the earliest period of intrapsychic functioning. Anxiety reflects earliest psychic awareness of biological disequilibrium. All other affects differentiate out of anxiety in course of individual's relationship with and psychic dealing with object-world. Third and fourth months, fascination and discomfort appear, associated with gratification or the lack of it. Six to ten months, awareness of need avoidance brings about differentiation of bliss and fear. Twelve to sixteen months, affective decentering brings about feelings of helplessness (helplessnes separation anxiety). Affect of hopelessness first occurs during phallic phase. "Thus what begins as an awareness of somatic and objectless instinctual-drive tension and is called anxiety is differentiated through relationship activity to include feelings indicating psychic awareness of needs and gratifications and then a psychic self in relationship to psychic representations of object" (p. 304). Useful in explaining the psychoanalytic view of differentiation of emotions and separation anxiety.

Sears, R.R. A Theoretical Framework for Personality and Social Behavior. The American Psychologist, 1951, 6, 476-483. (Also in Rosenblith, Allinsmith, and Williams (Eds.) The Courses of Behavior 3rd Ed.)

In this article Sears claims that the most promising directions now discernable in the study of social behavior and personality require a theory that has the following properties: its basic reference events must be actions, it must combine congruently both dyadic and monadic events; it must account for both on-going action and learning; it must provide a description of personality couched in terms of potentiality for action; and it must provide principles of personality development in terms of changes in potentiality for action. Useful in discussing requisites of a theory of personality and social behavior.

Stott, L. H. Child Development: An Individual Longitudinal Approach. New York: Holt, Rinehard and Winston, 1967. (Chapter 11 - Emotional Development.)

This chapter takes a practical look at emotions and contends that an adequate consideration of emotions must deal with behavioral, experimental, physiological and psychological aspects. Freud's stages of development and Bridge's differentiation theory are presented. Specific emotions and their development and emotional problems of childhood are also discussed. Useful in providing an overview of Freud's psychosexual stages, Bridge's theory, and the development of specific emotions.

Strongman, K.T. The Psychology of Emotion. New York: John Wiley, 1973.

This book is an attempt to draw together and compare representative examples of psychological views of emotion. The basic aims are to provide a broad coverage of emotion and to suggest guidelines for its study and research. Because the emphasis is on sound research and on theory which is well anchored to such research there is a learning toward behavioral approaches to the subject. The introduction speaks to some basic problems and the foundations of theories of emotion. Chapter 2 presents twenty theories or models of emotion in summary form. Each of the three following chapters emphasizes a different approach to the study of emotion: physiological, cognitive, and behavioral. Three further chapters deal with the study of emotion as it cuts across psychology. These are emotional development, the social psychological approach to the expression and recognition of emotion, and pathological or morbid emotion. The last chapter provides a brief overview and a definition of emotion. Useful in providing a good overview of the psychological theories of emotion.

Thomas, A., Chess, S., and Birch, H.G. The Origin of Personality. In Readings from Scientific American: Psychology in Progress. San Francisco, California: W. H. Freeman Company, 1975. p. 210-217.

The authors view the nature, nurture concepts as too simplistic by themselves to account for personality development. Instead they hypothesize that the personality is shaped by the constant interplay of temperament and environment. The authors closely studied behavior tendencies and patterns for 141 children from infancy to about age 14. In analyzing behavioral profiles three general types of temperament were identified (easy children, difficult children, and slow to warm up children). It is concluded that what is important in personality development is the interaction between the child's own characteristics and his environment. It is recommended that theory and practice in psychiatry take into full acount the individual and his uniqueness: how children differ and how these differences act to influence their psychological growth. Useful in examining nature/nurture issue and the significance of individual differences in personality development.

Young, Paul T. Emotion in Man and Animal. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Incorporated, 1943.

Young defines emotion as an acute disturbance of the individual as a whole, psychological in orgin, involving behavior, conscious experience, and visceral functioning. An attitude is a predisposition within the individual to respond in a particular way to some object or situation. Appetite and emotion are different states. Needs are at the basis of appetites, which are states which liberate energy and excite the nervous system, thus initiating behavior. Appetites have an intraorganic source, emotions a psychological source. Affective development is an orderly process through which attitudes, habits, motives are formed and through which conflict states are built up and removed. Emotional development is fundamentally a change of the psychological organization within the individual. Young believes there are several difficulties with the theory that an emotion is a pattern of organic response. For instance, there is no criterion by which to differentiate organic patterns as emotional or non-emotional (some reflexes, as more reflex, are non-emotional). The total emotional event includes organic patterns of response. The emotional event must be described from the chemical, physiological, behavioral, and situational points of view, as well as from the strictly subjective standpoint of the consciously experiencing individual. There are four varieties of factors which produce a emotional upset in man and animal: (1) intense and persistent stimulation, (2) frustration of a strongly motivated activity, (3) state of conflict, and (4) release of bodily tension. Emotions thus arise out of the psychological situation which includes the total behavioral relationships between an organism and its external world and consists of such things as memories, thoughts, imaginations, and perceived events and objects. The number of possible circumstances within which emotion arises is large, owing to the process of identification of these emotions in the lives of other persons. Individuals differ widely in emotional stability, in the frequency and intensity of emotional outbreaks. Emotions can be described in terms of the inducing situation (stimulating circumstances) and the response of an organism to that situation. Useful in presenting Young's theory of emotion.

Ambrose, J.A. The Development of the Smiling Response in Early Infancy. In B.M. Foss (Ed.). Determineats of Infant Behavior Volume I. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1961. p. 179-201.

This exploratory study used only small numbers of infants and was carried out in institutions and homes. The first phase aimed at seeing how the smiling response varies once it has begun to occur in particular situations. Institution infants were studied in this phase and it was found that in a particular situation the smiling response showed a tendency to wane over a block of time. The second phase was concerned with how smiling changes over the weeks once it has become responsive to the face after about six weeks of age. For institution infants it was found that once smiling begins to occur in the experimental situation it increases in response-strength over the weeks until it reaches a peak somewhere in the period 17 to 23 weeks, and then declines to reach a low level by 36 weeks. The third phase involved a comparison of this long-term trend of smiling of institution infants with that of home infants. It was found that by and large the form of the trends was similar but that the equivalent characteristics of each trend occur significantly earlier in the case of the home sample than with the institution sample. A general discussion of possible reasons for this difference follows. Useful in providing basic data on the development of the smiling response in infants.

Bell, S.M., and Ainsworth, M.D.S. Infant Crying and Maternal Responsiveness. In F. Rebelsky and L. Dorman (Eds.), Child Development and Behavior (2nd Ed.). New York; Alfred A. Knopf, 1973, p. 129-145.

This naturalistic, longitudinal study of 26 infant-mother pairs shows that consistency and promptness of maternal response is associated with decline in frequency and duration of infant crying. By the end of the first year individual differences in crying reflect the history of maternal responsiveness rather than constitutional differences in infant irritability. Close physical contact is the most frequent maternal intervention and the most effective in terminating crying. Nevertheless, maternal effectiveness in terminating crying was found to be less powerful than promptness of response in reducing crying in subsequent months. Evidence suggests that whereas crying is expressive at first, it can later be a mode of communication directed specifically toward the mother. The development of noncrying modes of communication, as well as a decline in crying, is associated with maternal responsiveness to infant signals. The findings are discussed in an evolutionary context, with reference to the popular belief that to respond to his cries "spoils" a baby. Useful in examining crying in conjunction with attachment and in discussing these behaviors in an evolutionary context.

Cohen, Sarale, E. and Beckwith, Leila, Department of Pediatrics and Psychiatry, U.C.L.A. Maternal Language Input In Infancy. Presented at APA, Chicago, 1975.

Study investigated frequency, intrusiveness, integration with mutualgazing, and old responsiveness of language on infants of one, three and 18 months. Age and sex of infant, maternal education, child's ordinal position in the family were factors of influence that were studied. Results - mothers styles are consistant at different stages. Maternal language input shows stability as baby matures, frequency and style of the input changes, frequency of input seems dependent on interaction style or situation rather than vocal cues from baby. The effect of maternal language on infants skills suggests that the amount and type of maternal language input are important at an early age.

Decarie, T.G. Intelligence and Effectivity in Early Childhood. New York: International Universities Press, Incorporated, 1965.

The purpose of this investigation is to determine the connection between what psychoanalysis calls "object relations" in the area of emotional development of the infant and the developmental stages of the schema of permanent objects. The central goal is to examine the correlations between the development of the object and that of "object relations" in the affective sense of the term. Background information is provided on Piaget's theory of the development of the object concept and object relations in contemporary psychoanalytic theory. The construction of the objectal scale is described. To test the hypothesis that "Some relationship exists between the development of the object concept in terms of Piaget's theory and the development of the object relation in terms of psychoanalytic theory" 90 infants between three and twenty months were tested on the Piaget series and the objectal scale. The experiments have proven the existence of a close link between intellectual development analyzed under the specific aspect of the object concept and measured by the Piaget ranks, and affective development analyzed under the specific aspect of object relations. This link is such that, as the subject gets older, he reaches increasingly advanced levels from the objective, and an increasingly higher rank from the objectal points of view. Useful in looking at theory and research on the relationship between intellectual and affective development as concerns object relations in the infant.

Escalona, S.K. Patterns of Infantile Experience and the Development Process. In R.S. Eissler, A. Freud, H. Hartmann, and M. Kris (Eds.). The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child Volume XVIII. New York: International Universities Press, Incorporated, 1963. p. 197-244.

The behavior of four infants is closely observed, two of which are active, two inactive. Piagetian and psychoanalytic theory are drawn upon. The central theme is that "... very different actions on the part of mothers (or other environmental variations) may have very similar consequences in terms of their impact upon the child's experience as reflected in behavior; and conversely, that similar or identical external stimulation may have varying and opposite consequences - in terms of the direction in which they alter behavior" (p. 242). Environmental and organismic variables converge and reciprocally interact in shaping the experience of the growing child. Ego functions necessarily emerge and differentiate in the course of successive encounters and adaptations. Developmental transitions thought to be important during the first year are discussed (emerging separation of self from nonself, awareness of differential characteristics of the environment, early forms of acting upon the environment in an adaptive manner, and developing relationship with mother). Data suggest that some developmental transitions may be accomplished by different routes and that differences in organismic characteristics may determine the impact of external stimulation upon the child's experience. Useful in providing a discussion of factors that contribute to child development from Piagetian and psychoanalytic frameworks.

*Eveloff, H.H. Some Cognitive and Affective Aspects of Early Language Development. Child Development, 1971, 42, 1895-1907.

The purpose of this article is to elcuidate and synthesize some cognitive and affective aspects of early human language development. Language is viewed as evolving along three separate but highly related developmental hierarchies: neurophysiologic, cognitive, and affective. The stages of speech development are described in terms of the interrelationship of all these hierarchies. The beginning of a bidirectional communications system is marked by the appearance of the social smile, which is a highly signficiant event in terms of the development of language and the mother/child relationship. Later development of language depends heavily upon the infant's symbiotic bond with the mother. Eveloff holds that an optimum emotional climate is highly important for the normal development of language. Pathologic use of language can result if emotional conditions are not favorable. Individuation and separation also contribute importantly to language development. It is generally concluded that the first 18 months are crucial for symbolic language development and that a theory of language development must take into account the emotional consequences of a prolonged dependence of the human organism or murturing adults to explain the use of words for more than a sign or signal value. Useful in explaing how emotional events and development contribute to the learning of language.

Harlow, H.F. Primary Affectional Patterns in Primates. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1960, 30, 676-684.

This brief article reports on Harlow's research with rhesus monkeys and the variables critical in the formation of primary affectional ties between mother and infant. Harlow contends that the research findings obtained on the baby rhesus monkey during the first year have high generality to the human baby. Harlow's classic experiments employing wire and cloth surrogate mothers demonstrated the importance of contact-comfort in the formation of attachment for the mother. Monkeys even chose to spend more time with their terry-cloth surrogates than with the wire surrogates which fed them. Useful in illustrating the importance of contact comfort from a comparative perspective.

*Harper, L. V. The Young As a Source of Stimuli Controlling Caretaker Behavior. In F. Ribelsky and L. Dorman (Eds.). Child Development and Behavior (2nd Ed.). New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1973, p. 255-273.

The effects of mammalian offspring on their caretaker are reviewed, following a general classification system in which the offspring are seen as providing enogenous stimuli which facilitate or inhibit caretaker behavior. The studies reviewed clearly indicate that the young of infrahuman mammals direct and regulate the course of caretaking interactions. Although the evidence from observations of human parent-child relationships is neither as extensive nor detailed as the comparative work, the data does support the contention that human offspring play an active role in determining the form and patterning of child rearing. Useful in discussing the infant's role in directing and regulating caretaking behavior.

*Kessler, J.W. Psychopathology of Childhood. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1966. (Chapter 2 - Reciprocal Relationship of Mental and Emotional Development in Early Childhood.)

This chapter provides an overview and discussion of developmental topics from a psychoanalytic and Piagetian perspective. Subjects covered include ego development, discovery of physical self, object permanence, stranger anxiety, curiosity, imitation, language acquisition, egocentrism, synthesis of ego, and concrete versus abstract mental functioning. Philosophies of early education are also presented (psychoanalytic and Montessori method). Useful in providing a general overview of Piagetian and psychoanalytic views of child development.

Lewis, M., and Rosenblum, L.A. (Eds.). The Effect of the Infant on its Caregiver. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1974.

The theme of this volume centers around the effect that the infant may have on its caregiver. The studies presented are: (1) Contributions of Human Infants to Caregiving and Social Interaction, (2) An Interactional Approach to the Mother-Infant Dyad, (3) The Origins of Reciprocity. The Early Mother-Infant Interaction, (4) Variability of Growth and Maturity in Newborn Infants, (5) The Effect of the Infant's State, Level of Arousal, Sex, and Ontogenetic Stage on the Caregiver, (6) Organization of Sleep in Prematures: Implications for Caretaking, (7) Developmental Changes in Compensatory Dyadic Response in Mother and Infant Monkeys, (8) Some Factors Influencing the Attraction of Adult Female Macaque Monkeys to Neonates, (9) Mother and Infant at Play: The Dyadic Interaction Involving Facial, Vocal, and Gage Behaviors, (10) Blind Infants and Their Mothers: An Examination of the Sign Signal, and (11) Social Responses of Animals to Infants with Defects. Useful in presenting research articles on the effect of the infant on its caretaker.

Piaget, J., and Inhelder, B. The Psychology of the Child. New York: Basic Books, 1969. (Chapter 4 - The Affective Aspect of Sensori-motor Reactions.)

Piaget divides the affective aspect of sensori-motor reactions into three developmental stages. The first, adualism, refers to the child before there is any consciousness of self. At this time the child alternates between states of tension and relaxation. The second stage, intermediary reactions, sees the infant experiencing psychological satisfactions and also discomforts and anxieties. Object relations, the third stage, is the point at which affective decentering of the self occurs. Useful in presenting Piaget's concept of the development of affective decentering.

Rheingold, H. L. The Development of Social Behavior in the Human Infant. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 1966, 31, 1-17. (Also in I. B. Weiner and D. Elkind (Eds.) Readings in Child Development.)

Rheingold presents four principles in her discussion of social behavior: (1) the infant is responsive to stimuli arising from social object; (2) The infant is active in initiating social contact; (3) the infant's social behavior is modified by the responses of others to him; and (4) the infant's social responses modify the behavior of others in his group. These principles are elaborated, with reference made to important issues and research and comparison made between human infants and other mammals. The author holds that these principles provide a framework for classifying and organizing knowledge of the development of social behavior in the human and other mannalian infants. Useful in providing a framework within which to view social development of the infant.

Sander, L. W. Issues in Early Mother-Child Interaction. American Academy of Child Psychiatry Journal, 1962, 1, 141-166.

This study, of a naturalistic, exploratory type, presents the researcher's modes of organizing the complex longitudinal descriptive data of early development in respect to one of its facets, namely, that of the mother-child interaction. Interactional data was divided into a sequence of time segments and evaluations were made of interactions prominent in each segment. Time segments for the first eighteen months are: (1) Period of initial adaptation, (2) Period of reciprocal exchange, (3) Period of early directed activity of the infant, (4) Period of focalization on mother, and (5) Period of self-assertion. Useful in providing a paradigm for studying early mother-child interaction.

Sander, L. W., Stechler, G., Burns, P., and Julia, H. Early Mother-Infant Interaction and 24-hour Patterns of Activity and Sleep. American Academy of Child Psychiatry Journal, 1970, 9, 103-123.

This research is directed at documenting earliest mother-infant interactional behavior in greater detail as well as searching for a paradigm for viewing the constraints to interaction imposed by vital biological determinants concerned with regulation, adaptation, and in the large view, organizational. One of the earliest accomplishments in the nenate-caretaker interaction may be that of synchrmization of macroscopic periodicities, existing in various infant functional systems with corresponding regularities in features of caretaking environment. Basic design of this study compared interaction in 3 infant-caretaker environments over the first two months of life. Sources of periodicity involved in temporal organization of infant functions are presented and discussed. Useful in presenting an interactional paradigm and research strategy for study of early infant-caretaker behaviors.

Spitz, R.E. The First Year of Life. A Psychoanalytic Study of Normal and Deviant Development of Object Relations. New York: International Universities Press, 1965.

This book reports on a study of object relations - their beginnings, development, stages, and certain anomalies. The theoretical position is based on Freud's concept of the neonate as a psychologically indifferentiated organism whose growth and development in the psychological sector are essentially dependent on the establishment and the progressive unfolding of ever more meaningful object relations, that is, of social relations. Direct observation was the primary research method but personality tests were administered and numerous experiments were carried out over the extended time period during which observations were made. Based on this data the author presents a rounded picture of his work on the genesis of the first object relations and their component elements; on their successive stages found in normal development, and also on some of their disturbances in the course of the first year of life. Useful in providing a detailed description of the development of object relations in infancy from a psychoanalytic perspective.

Sroufe, L. A., and Waters, E. The Ontogenesis of Smiling and Laughter: A perspective on the organization of development in infancy. *Psych. Review*, 1976, in press.

An integrative perspective on cognitive-affective development is presented which emphasizes the function of the infant's smile. The role of psychophysiological processes in the expression of positive affect is examined from the onset of the earliest endogenous smiles to the emergency of mature smiling and laughter. A tension release hypothesis is formulated which is complementary to social and cognitive theories of smiling and has the advantage of pointing to the function of the smile *for the infant*. The consequence of smiles following mastery and smiles following excitation is emphasized. Analysis of developmental changes in the "semantics" of the smile illustrate a number of descriptive developmental principles, including the following: (a) developmental sequences may be repeated during the development of the same phenomenon, (b) with age, the infant becomes increasingly active in producing and mastering its own experience, (c) social and individual functions of early behavior often converge in promoting accommodation to and assimilation of novel events, (d) fears and joy, wariness and smiling, have close functional relationships with respect to coping with novelty, and (e) cognitivie and social-emotional aspects of development are inseparable. Useful in examining the development of specific emotional expressions from a cognitive affective view.

Tautermannova, M. Smiling in Infants. *Child Development*, 1973, *44,* 701-704.

The smiling response recognized as one of the first emotional and social patterns of infant's behavior, is studied in terms of the development of its duration in the first six months of life. The observations, each lasting one hour, showed that the length of smiling depended on the age of infants, on the social interaction between the adult and the infant, and on the time that had passed from the beginning of the observation. There were significant individual differences in the length of smiling that even increased with age. There were also individual differences in infants as to their reaction to the social interaction between the adult and the child. Useful in reporting research on the development of the smile in infants.

Weiner, I.B., and Elkind, D. Child Development: A Core Approach. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Incorporated, 1972 (Chapter 3 Personality and Social Development and Chapter 7 - Personality and Social Development.)

Chapter 3 speaks to personality development of the infant according to two principles of development: progressive differentiation and hierarchical differentiation. At birth an infant has a limited repertorie of expressive behaviors and the differentiation of expressive behavior proceeds to pass through three important milestones: eye contact, babbling, and imitation. In later infancy two other expressive acquisition. Erikson's first two stages of psychosocial development are also described.

Chapter 7 speaks to the development of personality in the preschool child. The three important themes that characterize development during these years are discussed. They include: (1) The preschool child makes important progress in self-awareness and in the formation of positive and negative attitudes towards himself, (2) There is a tremendous expansion in the numbers and types of person with whom he comes in contact and in the nature of the interactions he has with them; and (3) The ages two to five are a crucial period for the disciplinary and role-modeling activities by which parents socialize their youngsters and transmit their culture to them.

Useful in examining infant's expressive behaviors and pre-schooler's social development.

B. Caretaker Attachment-Separation

Ainsworth, M. D., and Bell, S. M. Attachment, Exploration and Separation: Illustrated by the Behavior of One-year Olds in a Strange Situation. Child Development, 1970, 41, 49-68. (Also in I. B. Weinter and D. Elkind (Eds.) Readings in Child Development.)

In order to explore attachment and exploration behaviors in conjunction with mother-present and mother-absent conditions infants were placed in a strange situation and their behavior observed.

Infants in strange situations with mother present showed little alarm and used her as a secure base from which to explore the situation. Absence of the mother resulted in a heightening of attachment behavior and a concomitant lessing of exploration. Findings discussed terms of other research. Attachment discussed as an ethological and evolutionary concept. Useful in looking at some particulars of attachment behavior and providing an ethological and evolutionary perspective on attachment.

Bowlby, J. Attachment and Loss Volume I Attachment. New York: Basic Books, Incorporated, 1969.

Bowlby takes a psychoanalytic frame ofreference in this explication on the nature of the child's tie to his mother. His aim is to present a theory that adequately explains the processes of attachment. Part I outlines the assumptions made and compares them with Freud's and also reviews the empirical evidence drawn upon; Part II discusses the problem of instinctive behavior and how to conceptualize it; Parts III and IV presents the theory advanced on the nature of the child's tie to his mother. Bowlby advances what he calls a control theory of attachment behavior. "It postulates that the child's tie to his mother is a product of the activity of a number of behavioral systems that have proximity to mother as a predictable outcome" (p. 179). Bowlby draws heavily from ethological studies. Useful in providing an extensive discussion of attachment from a psychoanalytic framework.

Bowlby, J. Attachment and Loss Volume II Separation. New York: Basic Books, Incorporated, 1963.

The second volume of Bowlby's psychoanalytic treatise deals mainly with problems of separation anxiety. Bowlby first discusses the various forms of behavior taken to be indicative of fear and the nature of the situations that commonly elicit fear. He then considers the great differences in susceptibility to fear and anxiety that are found when one individual is compared with another. As in Volume I, Bowlby draws heavily from studies in ethology. Useful in providing an extensive discussion of fear and separation as they relate to attachment from a psychoanalytic perspective.

*Corter, C. Infant Attachments. In B. Foss (Ed.), New Perspectives in Child Development. Middlesex, England: Penguin Education, 1974. p. 164-183.

Corter first defines what is meant by attachment. He critically reviews studies of attachment responses, weighing the importance of early feeding behavior, the infant's visual capacities, crying, and smiling as they contribute to the development of mother-infant attachment. He presents differing views on what constitutes the attachment construct and discusses the major theories of attachment, including Freudian theory, drive-reduction learning theory, operant-learning theory, the ethological theory, and the control systems theory. It is concluded that a great deal of empirical research must precede putting order into the conceptual and theoretical issues entangled in attachment. Useful in providing a good discussion of critical issues and theories of attachment.

Cramn, M. K., and Tiffany, P. G. Infants in a strange situation: A Study of Attachment Behavior. Paper presented at Rocky Mountain Psychological Association. Phoenix, Arizona, 1976.

Ainsworth and Bell's (1970) study of one-year-olds in a situation involving interaction with a stranger was revised and extended. Two age groups were added, as was a familiarized adult to whom it could be assumed the subjects were not attached. This familiar adult acted as a comparison figure on which to base conclusions about the infants' selectivity in terms of their attachment behaviors. Subjects were 15 white, family-reared infants grouped according to age - 9 months, 12 months, and 15 months - with 5 subjects in each group. Attachment, exploration, and separation anxiety were the behaviors under study. The subjects were observed with their mothers present, with their mothers absent, in interation with the familiarized adult, and in interaction with a stranger. A frequency count of relevant behaviors was made by observers through a one-way window. Comparisons were made to determine differences in behavior across conditions and across age groups. Age differences were not significant. The addition of the familiarized adult did affect infants' behaviors, especially crying, which was notably decreased in this study, as compared with Ainsworth and Bell's (1970) work. An unexpected finding was a significant difference for only children. Useful in exploring a novel research area in attachment, use of a familiarized adult.

Decarie, T. G. The Infant's Reaction to Strangers. Trans. J. Diamanti. New York: International Universities Press, 1974.

This book brings together 4 studies which examine the infant's reaction to strangers. The authors introduction discusses this phenomenon from the psychoanalytic, ethological, psychophysiological, and Piagetian schools. A review of literature to date is also provided.

Exp. I. Purpose of research is to verify experimentally if infant's manifesting fear of strangers have usually reached or surpassed a particular stage of development in the concept of causality, the other possibility being that no systematic relationship can be shown to exist between this affective behavior and cognitive development (Piagetian framework). For 32 infants rated on a causality scale no correspondence was found to exist between the affective reaction evaluated in terms of global score and cognitive development expressed in terms of causality. Results did suggest that approach or contact would constitute an inherent threat in the eyes of the child only if he has acquired a thoroughly objectified and spahalized conception of causality.

Exp. II. Purpose was to determine whether a specific relationship exists between the stage an infant has reached in his development of object concept and his manner of reacting to strangers (Piagetian). For 32 infants rated on an object permanence scale (infants were 7½ to 13 mos.) there were no clear correspondence between the infant's affective reaction to strangers and his cognitive development in terms of his conceptualization of the human object. Findings do indicate that Ss who change affective tone during the gradual approach of a stranger tend to be in the advanced stages of object concept.

Exp. III. Basic hypothesis is that the fear of the unfamiliar reflects a problem of classification, and that during the period from approximately 8 to 12 months this classification of the unfamiliar can be accomplished only through the generalization to the stranger of responses that are linked in a special way to familiar persons (a test of Hebb's psychophysiological theory). Interviews were conducted with mothers of 18 infants. During experimental phase the mother performed the standard stimulation approach and reproduced the mother's particular behavior patterns. Hypothesis was supported.

Exp. IV. Goal of the study is to take a preliminary step toward providing a quantitative guide which would permit future inquiries into the infant's reaction to the stranger to control the variables involved in the modes of approach of the experimenter (ethological research method). Film and tape recording made of infant and S in translating the data, it was found that behavioral constancies in the mode of approach did emerge.

Useful in providing a review of literature on stranger anxiety, psychoanalytic, ethological, psychophysiological, and Piagetian views of stranger anxiety, and studies of stranger anxiety.

Farren, D. C., and Ramey, C. T. Infant Day Care and Attachment Behavior Toward Mothers and Teachers. Paper presented at American Psychological Association, Chicago, Illinois, September, 1975.

The growing trend toward placing infants in group day care at very early ages may possibly have serious effects on the development of the mother-child attachment bond. Twenty-three black infant day care reared children were observed in a situation designed to heighten attachment behaviors; both their mothers and an infant day care teacher were present. Children overwhelmingly preferred to be near and to interact with their mothers rather than their teacher indicating that the attachment bond had indeed been formed to the mother. Moreover, they perceived their mother as the helpgiver when faced with a mildly difficult problem. Useful in presenting research on the effect of day care rearing on attachment behaviors.

*Freedman, D. G., Loring, C. B., and Martin, R. M. Emotional Behavior and Personality Development. In Y. Brackbill (Ed.). Infancy and Early Childhood. New York: The Free Press, 1967, p. 429-502.

The first section of this chapter provides a review of research on the infant to three years old and covers such topics as crying, smiling, fear and anxiety, stranger anxiety, separation anxiety, anger, and aggression. Research trends are analyzed.

Major personality development theories are presented and discussed in terms of their basic assumptions and a biological approach to personality development is espoused. The advantages of a biological approach are elaborated.

Research on human attachment is presented with an emphasis on evolved mechanisms. Useful in reviewing the research on development of major emotions during infancy, in discussing the major personality development theories, and in presenting the attachment concept from an evolutionary view.

Goldberg, S. Infant Case and Growth in Urban Zambia. In F. Rebelsky and L. Dorman (Eds.). Child Development and Behavior (2nd Ed.). New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1973, p. 201-210.

Infants were observed in 38 homes in a high destiny suburb in Zambia over the period from 4 months through 12 months. THe major focus is upon the mother infant relationship and the way in which it structures the infant's world. A major difference between Zambian infancy and infancy in the United States is that the Zambian infant spends most of his time in close physical contact with the mother, since he is carried on her back in a sling. The effects of this practice on mother, cognitive, and social development are discussed. Useful in examining infant care cross-culturally.

*Harlow, H. F. Love in Infant Monkeys. In Scientific American, June, 1959.

Harlow discusses his experiments with infant monkeys in terms of the variables that are critical in the formation of affection between infant and mother. The purpose of the Harlow experiments was to compare the importance of nursing and all associated activities with that of simple bodily contact in engendering attachment. Contact comfort was shown to be a decisive variable. The critical tests are described and a discussion of other possibly important variables is presented. Useful in presenting a good discussion of factors that contribute to attachment with comparative research as a base.

Harlow, H. F., and Harlow, M. Learning to Love. American Scientist, 1966, 54, p. 244-272.

The Harlows discuss their experiments with young rhesus monkeys and three affectional systems: (1) the mother-infant affectional system; (2) the infant-mother affectional system; and (3) the peer affectional system. It is contended that the nature of developmental stages and their sequential development in all higher primates show striking similarities. The maternal affectional system is divided into three basic stages (maternal attachment and protection, ambivalence, and maternal separation) and progress through these stages is charted. The effects of social deprivation are also discussed. Useful in presenting comparative research and discussion in the development of affectional systems.

Jones, N. R. and Leach, G. M. Behavior of Children and Their Mothers at Separation and Greeting. In N. B. Jones (Ed.). Ethological Studies of Child Behavior. London: Cambridge University Press, 1972, p. 217-247.

The behavior of 35 mothers and their 2--4year old children was observed during separation at the beginning of a play group and during greeting at the end. Factor analysis showed the following main dimensions of behavior: crying at separation leading to greeting with either rapid approach with arms raised and touching the mother, or no response except looking at the mother and pointing at an object. The child's approach and arm raising were both shown to increase the chance of the mother's touching the child. When this effect was taken into account the mothers of children who cried at separation were found to behave no differently from mothers of children who did not cry. An analysis by age showed mothers of young criers to be more responsive than mothers of young non-criers, and mothers of old criers to be less responsive then mothers of old non-criers. Mothers of children who were less likely to move away from the mother were found to be more responsive in terms of likelihood of touching a child who approached. Useful in reporting an observational study of separation behaviors.

*Kagan, J. Personality Development. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Incorporated, 1969. (Chapter 2 - The First Critical Period: Birth to 18 months.)

This chapter looks at the major psychological and physical stages associated with the first 18 months along with the environmental events that influence these stages. Stranger and separation anxiety are discussed as well as the development of attachment to a caretaker. A good discussion of different views of caretaker attachment is provided. Behavioral differences among infants and how behavioral dispositions influence personality development in the infant are other topics covered. Useful in providing brief discussions of psychological and physical stages, stranger and separation anxiety, caretaker attachment, and behavioral differences and dispositions in infants.

Mussen, P. H., Conger, J. J., and Kagan, J. Child Development and Personality. New York: Harper & Row, 1974. (Chapter 5 - Social Factors in Infant Development.)

Research and theory on social factors in infant development are presented. Topics covered include infant response systems, attachment, stranger anxiety, separation anxiety, effects of minimal interaction with caretakers, and cultural differences in child rearing. This chapter provides good discussions of theoretical issues relating to topics covered. Useful in providing information and theoretical background on social development of infant.

*Rheingold, H. L., and Eckerman, C. O. The Infant Separates Himself From His Mother. In F. Rebelsky and L. Dorman (Eds.). Child Development and Behavior (2nd Ed.) New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1973, p. 149-161.

It is the purpose of this article to call attention to separation behavior in man and animal, to examine its biological and psychological consequences and to relate the behavior to current principles of behavior theory. Research that relates to separation is reviewed and discussed. Separation is of biological importance in that it is of consequence for the preservation of the individual and the species. Its psychological importance is due to the increased opportunities for learning that it allows for the infant. Useful in providing an excellent overview of the separation concept.

Schaeffer, H. R. The Onset of Fear of Strangers and the Incongruity Hypothesis. J. of Child Psychiatry, 1966, 7, 95-106.

The purpose of this paper is to assess the adequacy of the incongruity hypothesis in light of data obtained in the course of a longitudinal study on the development of the fear of strangers response system in human infants. Thirty-six infants were tested on measures of fear of strangers and social interaction over a year and a half period. The findings obtained within the present study are in accord with the view advanced by the incongruity hypothesis that the development of fear is dependent on the ability to perceive the stranger as different. A few alterations are recommended for the hypothesis, however. Useful in examining the incongruity hypothesis as it relates to fear of strangers.

Schaeffer, H. R. (Ed.). The Origins of Human Social Reations. New York: Academic Press, Incorporated, 1971.

This book is the result of a meeting of investigators of early social behavior. Papers presented cover these general topics: aspects of early social behavior, comparative perspectives, social perspectives, and basic processes. Participants include personality theorists, ethologists, and comparative psychologists. Recent research and theoretical inplications are discussed for mother-infant attachment, separation anxiety, and stranger anxiety, as well as related issues. Useful in presenting research and discussion on theoretical implications on the topics attachment, separation anxiety, stranger anxiety, and the development of social behavior.

Schaffer, H. R., and Emerson, P. E. The Development of Social Attachments in Infancy. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 1964, 29, No. 3.

This report is devoted to the formation and development of social attachments in infancy. The study takes the form of a longitudinal follow-up, in which 60 infants were investigated at 4 weekly intervals from the early weeks on up to 18 months of age. Using an attachment scale these parameters were explored: the age at onset of specific attachments are formed. A measure of fear of strangers was also included. Results indicate that the age at onset of specific attachments is generally to be found in the third quarter of the first year, but that this is preceded by a phase of indiscriminate attachment behavior; that the intensity of specific attachment increases most in the first month following onset and that thereafter fluctuations occur in individual cases; and that multiplicity of objects can be found in some instances as the very beginning of the specific attachment phase, becoming the rule in most of the remaining cases very soon thereafter. The data are discussed in relation to four themes which emerged from the findings: the nature of the attachment function, its developmental origins, its developmental trends, and the influence of the social setting. Useful in examining theoretical issues and research on the development of social attachments.

Wahler, R. G. Infant Social Attachments: A Reinforcement Theory Interpretation and Investigation. Child Development, 1967, 38, 1079-1088. (Also in V. Bronfenbrenner (Ed.) Influences On Human Development.)

In this study the hypothesis that infants will be differentially responsive to the social reinforcers presented by familiar and unfamiliar adults is tested. Thirteen infants (median age of 3 mos., 18 days) were approached by mothers and strangers and the smiling response was recorded as the dependent variable. Mothers were superior to female strangers in their attempts to control the infant's rates of smiling. Results suggest that the infant's social attachment to a specific individual has undergone significant development by the time he has reached age of 3 months. Useful in presenting research on attachment as measured by smiling.

Yarrow, L. J. The Development of Focused Relationships during Infancy. In J. Hellmuth (Ed.), Exceptional Infant Vol. I. New York: Brunner/Mazel, Incorporated, 1967, p. 163-189.

The focus of this study is on clarifying the concept of focused relationships in the infant by anchoring it in more behavioral terms. Some of the theoretical issues are summarized and some of the normative data on stages in development of relationships is presented. Observations were carried out in the home and examined infant's responses to animate and inanimate stimuli, familiar and unfamiliar social stimuli, and to neutral and friendly affect over different periods of infancy. Five types of social response patterns which correspond to different levels of object relationships were distinguished: (1) social awareness, (2) active recognition of the mother or usual caretaker, (3) active differentiation of stranger, (4) stranger anxiety, and (5) confidence relationship with mother. It was found that a focused individualized relationship with the mother or major caretaker does not appear suddenly, but is rather a gradual development of which there are many stages. These stages are characteristic of different developmental periods during the first year of life. Useful in looking at stages of development of social relationship attachment.

C. Adaptation - Mastery

*Connolly, K. and Bruner, J. (Eds.). The Growth of Competence. New York: Academic Press, 1974.

This book draws together several research studies on the development of competence in infancy. The main concern is with early competence and how its cultivation might effect the later functioning of the more mature organism. Research papers are grouped under these categories: An evolutionary process, mothers and infants, the growth of skills, language acquisition and development, personality and social competence, and implications and application. Useful in drawing together the most important research on the development of competence in infants.

Harter, Susan. Developmental Differences in the Manifestation of Mastery Motivation on Problem Solving Tasks. Child Development, 1975, 46, 370-378.

This study deals with the relative strength of mastery motivation and need for approval in four and ten year old children. The author found that mastery motivation was the major determinant for older children, particularly boys. Approval was not the major determinant for younger children. They exhibited a form of mastery motivation which involved the repeated production of interesting stimulus. Useful in discussing motivation in preschool children.

Hess, R. D. The Cognitive Environments of Urban Pre-school Children. Manual of instructions for administering and scoring mother's attitudes toward child's behavior leading to mastery. ERIC Reports, 1967, ED 018 256.

This manual describes measures used in "The cognitive environments of urban pre-school children" project at the University of Chicago. The sample for the study consisted of 163 Negro mother-child pairs selected from 3 socioeconomic classes and a fourth group of father-absent families. Mothers were interviewed at home and mothers and children were tested when the children were 4. Follow-up data were obtained when the children were 6 and again when they were 7. To determine mother's attitude toward her child's mastery behavior, each mother was given hypothetical situations in which her child's behavior in mastering skills conflicted with other people or damaged objects. Appeals used to change the child's behavior were scored according to 3 basic types: (1) status-normative, (2) person-subjective, and (3) cognitive rational. The situation descriptions and the criteria used for scoring categories are discussed. Useful in providing the manual for mother's attitudes toward child behavior leading to mastery.

*White, B. L. Critical Influences in the Origins of Competence. Paper presented at Merrill-Palmer Institute Conference on Research and Teaching of Infant Development, February, 1974. (To be published in Merrill-Palmer Quarterly.)

The research described in this paper focuses on the question of the experimental sources of human competence. It is a progress report on the large scale research project looking at the role of experience in the development of abilities during the first six years of life at the Harvard Preschool Project. The research, which is ethological in its approach, followed these steps: (1) Determine the behavioral characteristics of a well-developed six-year old; (2) Identify when those characteristics first emerge during the zero to six-year old range; (3) Create measurement techniques for gathering quantitative data on competencies, learning situations, and influential envrionmental; (4) Conduct a longitudinal natural experiment to generate hypotheses about affective child-rearing practices; (5) Create a training program to test these hypothesis; (6) Conduct a longitudinal experiment to test those hypotheses; (7) Refine and retest hypotheses. The project had completed step #5 and the paper discusses procedures and findings up to that point. Useful in discussing determinants of development of competency and a naturalistic research strategy for examining this development.

D. Self-Concept

Combs, A. W. Seeing is Behaving. Paper presented at Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Seattle, Washington, March, 1958.

This paper starts with the assumption that whatever we do as educators depends upon what we think people are like and then expounds two basic principles in modern thinking about human behavior and their implications for educators. Principle 1 holds that people behave according to how they perceive themselves and their world and Principle 2 states that the most important single thing in determining the nature of a person's behavior is the perceptions he holds about himself (self-concept). It is thus important for educators to pay heed to the self-concepts of developing children. Useful in discussing the importance of self-concept and implications for educators.

Coopersmith, S. The Antecedents of Self-Esteem. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman, 1967.

This book summarizes Coopersmith's intensive study of the antecedents and consequents of self-esteem. The report is intended to answer the question "What are the conditions that lead an individual to value himself and to regard himself as an object of worth?" The study begins with a group of fifth and sixth grade children and their parents who are tested on measures of social background, parental characteristics, child's characteristics, early history and experience, acceptance, permissiveness and punishment, democratic practices, and independence training. It was generally concluded that the parents of children with high self-esteem are concerned and attentive toward their children, that they structure the worlds of their children along lines they believe to be proper and appropriate, and that they permit relatively great freedom within the structures they have established. Useful in presenting research on the development of self-esteen in children.

Grossman, B. D. Enhancing the Self. Exceptional Children, 1971, November, 248-254.

This article reports on the important aspects of the development of self-awareness and of the related control core of affective and intellectual life and provides specific techniques for enhancing the self. The development of a sense of trust and a sense of autonomy occur early in life, during infancy. Beginning school, whether it be nursery or kindergarten has special significance for the development of self-concept. Specific experiences for enhancing the self in the areas of body image, the kinesthetic self, and the psychological self are presented. Useful in outlining important aspects of the development of self-awareness in providing exercises for enhancing self-concept.

Landry, R. G., Schilson, E., and Pardew, E. M. Self-Concept Enhancement in a Preschool Program. J. of Experimental Education, 1974, 42, 39-43.

The authors investigated the effects of a preschool self-concept enhancement program on a group of 4 year old children. Significant increases in self-concept were found on fourteen variables in the experimental group. More significant gains in self-concept were made on five variables by the experimental group when compared to a control. Self-chancing education does increase a person's conception of self at the preschool level. Useful in evaluating a preschool program designed to enhance self-concept.

*McCandless, B. R. Children: Behavior and Development (2nd Ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1967. (Chapter 6 - The Self-Concept)

This chapter looks at several dimensions of self-concept, defining self-concept as the apex-culmination of all social and personal experiences the child has. Theories of development and different methods of measuring self-concept are discussed. McCandless also examines the self-concept in terms of how it affects personal adjustment. Research shows that parental attitudes help shape self-concept. Ways in which a poor self-concept can lead to underachievement in school and other problems of childhood are also presented. Useful in providing a good overview of development of self-concept.

E. Socialization

Dennis, W. Infant Development Under Conditions of Restricted Practice and of Minimum Social Stimulation: A preliminary report. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1938, 53, 149-158. (Also in V. H. Denenberg (Ed.) The Development of Behavior.)

Two infants reared under conditions of minimum social stimulation and restricted practice for the first 7 lunar months of life, and under less stringent conditions during the remainder of the first year, yielded during most of the first year a record of development not distinguishable from comparison records of infants in normal environments. Retardations in the onset of certain responses are believed to have been due to specific restrictions of motor practice. No general retardation appeared in one subject. The general retardation of the other subject from 10 months of age onward is referable to an intracranial birth injury and not to the experiment. Useful in presenting research on social observation deprivation effects for 2 infants.

Deutsch, F. Female Preschoolers' Perceptions of Affective Responses and Interpersonal Behavior in Videotaped Episodes. Developmental Psychology, 1975, 10, 733-740.

Eight filmed episodes had congruous and incongruous stimulus features. Four episodes represented incongruity. Two episodes involved positive interpersonal behavior followed by negative affect, and two involved the reverse. There were four parallel congruous episodes where positive or negative affect was matched to the appropriate positive or negative interpersonal behavior. Forty-eight female preschoolers (ages 2.11-5.1) divided into high and average mental age groups, were asked to tell the story about each episode. On the congruous episodes, there was a significant main effect of mental age, for reasons for affective responses, and for intrapersonal behavior; however, this main effect was only significant for the latter two measures on incongruous episodes. Children scored significantly higher on the congruous than on the incongruous episodes. There was no significant main effect of chronological age for any measure. Useful in examining preschoolers' ability to perceive affect of others.

*Elkin, F., and Handel, G. The Child and Society: The Process Of Socialization (2nd Ed.) New York: Random House, 1972. (Chapter 3 - The Processes of Socialization.)

The purpose of the chapter is to identify and discuss the major processes of socialization so that a general "model" of socialization can be formulated. The framework utilized defines socialization as involving developmental change in the organism through communication in emotionally significant relationships which are shaped by social groupings of varying scope. The importance of the mother-child relationship as a socializing force in the infant's life is discussed. The role of communication and significant others in the socialization process is also discussed. The stages of socialization, as seen from Erikson's theory, are presented. Useful in providing a good overview of how socialization takes place and what the critical variables in the process are.

Harlow, Harry F. and Margaret K. "Social Deprivation in Monkeys" Reprinted from Scientific American, November, 1962.

The monkeys' capacity to develop normally appears to be determined by the 7th month of life. Animals isolated for six months are aberrant in every respect. Play with peers seems even more necessary than mothering for effective social realtion. Useful for showing peer relationship importance even in animals.

Kohn, M., and Rosman, B. L. Cross-Situational and Longitudinal Stability of Social-Emotional Functioning in Young Children. Child Development, 1973, 44, p. 721-727.

The purpose of the present study was to show that social-emotional functioning of children is fairly stable across settings and over time. Factor analysis revealed that two factors accounted for the major proportion of the variance in social-emotional functioning. These factors are (1) interest-participation versus apathy-withdrawal and (2) cooperation-compliance versus anger-defiance. Kindergarten children (287) were rated by their teachers on classroom functioning. Most of the children (271) were rated again by their classroom teachers at the end of first grade. The factor dimensions were found to have moderate stability over time and across settings. It was concluded that these factors represent relatively enduring personality predispositions.

Kohn, Martin and Rosman, B. L. Relationship of Preschool Social-Emotional Functioning to Later Intellectual Achievement. Developmental Psychology, 1972, 6, 445-452.

The purpose of this study was to test hypotheses about the relationship of preschool social-emotional functioning to school readiness and intellectual achievement in early elementary school. Two major orthogonal dimensions of social-emotional functioning were assumed: (a) Interest Participation versus Apathy-Withdrawal and (b) Cooperation-Compliance versus Anger-Defiance. As predicted, Interest-Participation was positively correlated with school readiness. Useful in discussing the correlation between school readiness and social-emotional functioning in a preschool setting.

Leach, G. M. A comparison of the social behavior of some normal and problem children. In N. B. Jones (Ed.), Ethological Studies of Child Behavior. London: Cambridge University Press, 1972, pp. 249-281.

A method of recording the social interactions of pre-school children and their mothers is described, and the problems of making an accurate record by direct observation are discussed. The results showed that the problem children had reduced, unsatisfactory interactions with both peers and mothers. They initiated less behavior and were less responsive to other children than the normals and they were less successful at eliciting responses from other children than the normals. They were less responsive to their mothers (which was surprising in view of their "clinging" behavior). The mothers of problem children seemed to be trying to avoid interactions with their children. Several similarities between the problem children and the young normals were found in the child-children interactions, but only two for the mother-child interactions. The results showed that, given enough data, this kind of analysis could examine the "mechanism" of interactions in considerable detail. Useful in presenting research on differences between normal and problem children. in social behavior and in describing a method of recording the social interaction of pre-schoolers.

McCandless, B. R. Children: Behavior and Development (2nd Ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1967 (Chapter 10 - Social and Emotional Development)

This chapter looks at socialization of the child in terms of social response and then social impulse and control. Erickson's eight stages of socialization are reviewed and followed by a discussion of the importance of parental reinforcement and its relation to socialization. Two theories of socialization (Freudian-learning theory and self-actualization theory) are presented and briefly discussed. Useful in presenting general socialization theory.

*Mussen, P. Early socialization: Learning and identification. In New Directions in Psychology III. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967, pp. 51-110.

This article provides a overview of the socialization process that occurs in early childhood. Socialization is defined and differing views are presented. The basic dimensions of socialization are delineated and then the developmental process is presented. Major topics covered include the role of learning, mother-child interaction, and the identification process. Useful in providing an excellent overview of the socialization process with emphasis on identification.

Shantz, C. V. Views on social-cognitive development of children and adults. Paper presented at American Psychological Association, Chicago, 1975.

This paper is a review of research and discussion of issues in the area of child's inferences about another persons intentions. The specific focus is on the child's and adolescent's abilities to make inferences about others' covert events, and the underlying organization of these inferences which reflect the relation between the self and the other person. Through presenting moral judgment research the author suggests that adult social attribution theory may provide a broader framework for examining children's many social judgments. Useful is examining moral judgement research in particular and person perspective-taking research in general in children.

Stott, L. H. The nature and development of social behavior "types" in children. In H. D. Behrens and G. Magnard (Eds.), The Changing Child: Readings in Child Development. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1972, pp. 83-92.

This report is mainly concerned with the importance of the physical organism in its constantly changing aspects, in relation to the patterning and "structure" of personality. An analysis of 4-year-olds in terms of social interaction resulted in seven meaningful social behavior types. These behavior types and early established traits were found to be fairly stable. Implications for child care and rearing are presented. It is felt that more consideration might well be given to the inherent affective nature and behavior tendencies of the individual child. Useful in presenting information on different types of social behavior and its development in children.

Sutton-Smith, B. Child Psychology. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1973. (Chapter 7 - Social Development)

This chapter discusses critical events and issues in the development of social behavior in infants and cites important research. Topics covered include the child-parent interaction, attachment to the parent, anxieties related to attachment, the institutionalized infant, socialization in infancy, cultural differences in child rearing, and the prediction of behavior on the basis of childhood experience. This chapter provides a good synthesis of current thought and research on social development. Useful in providing a good overview of social development.

F. Others: (Specific emotions, language, and communication, comparative studies, physiological measures of emotion, differentation of emotions)

Besdine, M. Nurturing and Ego Development. Psychoanalytic Review, 1973, 60, 19-43.

This article discusses the quality, quantity, and intensity of mothering and effects upon the development of the infant and young child. All the developing faculties such as intelligence, conceptualization, fantasy, impulse control, physical growth, capacity to survive, capacity to trust, object relations, and even superego functions appear to be affected by the mothering process. Relevant research is cited and psychoanalytic issues are discussed. Useful in discussing the mother's role as it affects the developing child.

Bridges, K. M. Emotional Development in Early Infancy. Child Development, 1932, 3, 324-334.

This article gives a detailed description of emotional development in terms of Bridges' view. Bridges holds that all emotions differentiate out of a general excitement state. Stages of emotional development, by months, are described in terms of both positive and negative emotional reactions. Bridges bases her theory on data obtained while observing infants at the Montreal Baby and Foundling Hospital. Useful in presenting Bridges' theory of emotional differentiation.

*Bronson, G. W. Development of Fear in Man and Other Animals. Child Development, 1968, 39, 409-432.

This article draws together data on the development of fear in infant mammals and organizes the material in terms of three hypothetical developmental stages. Evidence suggests that patterns of aversive reactions as well as the variables which affect their development are found to be generally similar for human, other primates, and dogs. It is argued that a normal development of aversive reactions at later ages depends on successful transitions through earlier developmental stages, and that the mother plays an essential, but changing, role in promoting such developments. The first development stage coincides with the period when distress reactions are dominant-visual novelty is not yet a basis for fear. After development of the capacity for encoding visual patterns, the emerging fear of visual novelty introduces the second stage. The third stage is characterized by a growing independence in which the fear of novel situations is mastered without direct reference to the mother. Useful in understanding the development and nature of fear in humans and other mammals.

Buck, R. Nonverbal Communication of Affect in Children. J. Of Pers. and Soc. Psych., 1975, 31, 644-653.

A paradigm was tested for measuring the tendency of children to send accurate nonverbal signals to others via spontaneous facial expressions and gestures. Eighteen male and 11 female preschoolers (aged 4 to 6) watched a series of emotionally loaded color slides while they were observed via a hidden television camera by their mothers. Videotapes of the child were later observed by groups of undergraduates. Results indicated that significant overall communication occurred, with large individual differences in "sending ability" between children. There was no evidence of a large sex difference in sending ability in children although on one measure girls were more accurate senders than boys. Sending ability was positively related to teacher's ratings of activity level, aggressiveness, impulsiveness, bossiness, sociability, etc., and negatively related to shyness, cooperation, emotional inhibition and control, etc. Useful in examining research on nonverbal communication of affect.

Denenberg, V. H. Critical Periods, Stimulus Input, and Emotional Reactivity. Psychological Review, 1964, 71, 335-351. (Also in N.S. Ender, L.R. Boulter, and H. Osser (Eds.) Contemporary Issues in Developmental Psychology.)

Experiments using rats and mice do not support the critical period hypothesis that there are certain limited time periods in infancy during which a particular class of stimuli will have profound effects upon subsequent behavior. Where findings are consistent with the hypothesis, further research has shown that the "critical period" is a complex function of amount of infantile stimulation. The antral hypothesis of this paper is that amount of stimulus input in infancy acts to reduce emotional reactivity in a montonic fashion. From this it follows that an inverted U function should be obtained between amount of infantile stimulation and adult performance for tasks involving some form of noxious element and which are of "moderate" difficulty. For tasks which are "easy" or "difficult", the relationships between performance in adulthood and infantile stimulation should be monotonic, though opposite in slope. Data supporting this theory are discussed. Useful in providing a technical analysis of critical periods, stimulus input, and emotional reactivity from a research orientation.

Denenberg, V. H. Early Experience and Emotional Development. In Scientific American, June, 1963.

The purpose of Denenberg's experiments with infant rats was to examine the influence of early social experiences on later emotional behavior. Rats were subjected to varying experiences in infancy and later tested on the "open field" test. The first series of experiments showed a direct relation between the emotional state of a mother and that of her offspring, with stable mothers raising stable offspring and disturbed mothers raising disturbed offspring. It was also found that the behavior of the offspring affected the mother and that significant changes in the emotional behavior of both mothers and offspring occurred as a result of the social interaction inherent in the rearing process. Another finding was that the effect of mixing stable and distrubed infant rats was to make their emotional behavior more dissimilar at maturity. It is concluded that social experience immediately after weaning will bring about relatively permanent changes in the emotional behavior of the adult rat. Useful in examining effects of early social experience on emotional development of rats.

Ekman, P., and Friesen, W. V. *Unmasking the Face*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1975.

This book is about feelings and facial expression. The first focus is on what the feelings look like. Photographs show the facial blueprints of the major emotions - surprise, fear, anger, disgust, sadness, and happiness. The experience and facial expressive concomitants of these emotions generally concludes that Darwin was correct when he claimed that the facial appearance of the basic emotions is universal, although there are some cultural differences in when these expressions are shown. Exercises are provided for recognizing emotions from facial expression and the concluding chapters look at styles of emotional expression. Useful in understanding how the face expresses emotions and how to recognize emotions in yourself and others from facial expression.

Elkind, D. Egocentrism in Young Children. *The Educational Digest*, 1972, February, 39-41.

In this brief article, Elkind stresses the practical meaning of Piaget's motion of childhood egocentrism. He holds that parents and professionals should understand that egocentrism is a natural childhood phase and that children thus need time to adapt to changing body proportions and to develop their new facility in language and drinking. Elkin, appalled by the overemphasis on the intellect, believes that we do children a disservice if we stimulate their intellect at the expense of nourishing their self-worth, their initiative, and their sense of being loved for what they are. Useful in stressing the importance of developmental readiness in teaching the child and in explaining in practical terms the meaning of childhood egocentrism.

Goldschmid, M. L. The Relation of Conservation to Emotional and Environmental Aspects of Development. In H. D. Behrens and G. Maynard (Eds.), *The Changing Child: Readings in Child Development*. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1972, p. 414-421.

The present research represents an attempt to relate Piaget's concept of conservation to significant affective and environmental factors in the child's development. First and second graders were evaluated on several measures of conservation and affective and environmental variables. It was generally found that children achieving higher conservation scores tended to possess personality characteristics typically thought of as enhancing cognitive functioning. Children with a high level of conservation tended to see themselves more objectively and were described as being more reflective. Environmental conditions undoubtedly serve either to enhance or to inhibit development of the child's cognitive structures. Useful in presenting research and discussion of interrelatedness of conservation (Piagetian) and affect.

Gould, R. Child Studies Through Fantasy. New York: Quardrangle Books, 1972.

The study presented in this book represents a major effort at synthesis of theoretical views of fantasy behavior in the early years of childhood, with the systems of Piaget and Freud as the foundation for analysis. The author selected for study the fantasy expression of children three, four, and five years old, who were observed in a nursery school. The fantasy records were analyzed to bring into focus features of individuation and identification modes of defense, and foundations of morality. Useful in analyzing children's fantasy from a Piagetian and Freudian perspective.

Hess, R. D., and Shipman, V. Early blocks to Children's Learning. In R. D. Storm and E. P. Torrana (Eds.), Education for Affective Achievement. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1973, p. 28-38.

This study looks at the influence of different socioeconomic factors in the preschool child's development. Hypotheses are: (1) that the behavior which leads to social, educational, and economic poverty is socialized in early childhood and (2) that the central factor involved in the effects of cultural deprivation is a lack of cognitive meaning in the mother-child communication system. Results indicated a marked social class difference in children's ability to learn from their mother. Useful in presenting research on social class differences in learning ability.

*Hurlock, E.B. Child Development (5th Ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972. (Chapter 9 - Emotional Development.)

The theme of this chapter is that all emotions play an important role in life and need to be directed into wholesome patterns of expression. It is pointed out that emotional development follows a predictable pattern, though the rate of development varies for different children. Emotional patterns that emerge during infancy and early childhood are traced in terms of the most common patterns, the stimuli which arouse them, and the typical responses of each pattern. The ways in which emotional balance, heightened emotionality, and emotional control contribute to development of emotional patterns are also discussed. Useful in charting the normative pattern of emotional development for those working with children.

Kessler, J. W. Psychopathology of Childhood. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1966. (Chapter 2 - Reciprocal Relationship of Mental and Emotional Development In Early Childhood.)

This chapter provides an overview and discussion of developmental topics from a psychoanalytic and Piagetian perspective. Subjects covered include ego development, discovery of physical self, object permanence, stranger anxiety, curiosity, imitation, language acquisition, egocentrism, synthesis of ego, and concrete versus abstract mental functioning. Philosophies of early education are also presented (psychoanalytic and Montessori method). Useful in providing a general overview of Piagetian and psychoanalytic views of child development.

Kohn, M., and Rosman, B. L. Cognitive Functioning in Five Year Old Boys as Related to Social-Emotional and Background-Demographic Variables. Developmental Psychology, 1973, 8, p. 277-294.

The purpose of the study was to determine via hierarchical multiple regression analysis the extent to which cognitive functioning at the preschool level is a function of two major classes of variables: (a) background-demographic variables and (b) measures of social-emotional functioning. Background variables as a group accounted for 6% to 22% of the variance in seven measures of cognitive functioning; social-emotional variables as a group accounted for 4.8% to 20.6% of the variance in these measures; jointly they accounted for 12.7% to 34.5% of variance. The most potent background variables were social class and race. The most potent social-emotional variables were Interest-Participation and Task Orientation; a third social-emotional variable, Cooperation-Compliance, was not related to cognitive functioning. Useful in presenting findings on relationship between cognitive functioning and social-emotional and demographic factors.

Landreth, C. Early Childhood Behavior and Learning (2nd Ed.). New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1967. (Chapter 11 - Emotional Behavior.)

This chapter focuses on the development of specific emotions and presents important research on these topics. One section reports on anger-provoking stimuli, the expression of anger, resentment, hostility, characteristics of fear, the incidence of specific fears, and the onset of specific fears. Anxiety, failure and frustration and jealousy are also discussed. Also considered are the young child's feelings about himself. This chapter provides a good overview of the development of specific emotions in the normal child. Useful in examining development of specific emotions.

Leithwood, K. A. Motor, cognitive, and affective relationships among advantaged preschool children. The Research Quarterly, 1972, 42, 47-53.

Motor-cognitive and motor-affective relationships were examined among 60 four-year-old nursery school children advantaged intellectually and socioeconomically. Both simple and complex motor measures were correlated with eight dimensions of intellectual functioning and a multidemensional scale of psychosocial adjustment. Several cognitive abilities were identified as having significant relations with motor ability. As well, twice as many significant correlations were found between intellectual measures and complex as compared with simple motor ability. Psychosocial adjustment appeared to be unrelated to either the cognitive or motor spheres. Useful in studying relationships between motor, cognitive, and affective dimensions in preschoolers.

Levine, S. Stimulation in infancy. In Scientific American, May, 1960.

This study reports on the effects on rats of stimulation during infancy. Infant rats were subjected to electric shock, handling, no shock, and no handling conditions and then checked for signs of emotional disorder when they reached adulthood. Nonmanipulated "controls" were found to exhibit deviations of behavior and physiology when they were tested as adults. It is speculated that some degree of stressful experience in infancy is necessary for successful adaptation. Implications for human infants and critical period theory are discussed. Useful in providing research and discussion on stimulation in infancy and subsequent adaptation from research with mammals.

*Lewis, M., and Rosenblum, L. A. (Eds.). The Origins of Fear. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1974.

This book consists of a collection of studies on the development of fear. In the introduction different forms of fear are discussed and general definitional and theoretical problems presented. The studies presented are as follows: 1) Cognitive Components of the Infant's Response to Strangeness, 2) Fear-Mediated Processes in the Context of Imprinting, 3) Contextual Determinants of Infant Affective Response, 4) Fear and the Development of Social Attachments in the First Year of Life, 5) Social and Situational Determinants of Fear in the Play Group, 6) Responses of One-Year-Olds to a Stranger in a Strange Situation, 7) Fear of Strangers and Specificity of Attachment in Monkeys, 8) Self, Other, and Fear:Infants' Reactions to People, and 9) Discrepancy, Temperament, and Infant Distress. A final chapter brings together discussants views on general issues in the study of fear. Useful in evaluating theoretical issues in the study of fear and in presenting some of the important research in the area.

Liebert, R. M., Poulos, R. W., and Strauss, G. P. Developmental Psychology. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1974 (Chapter 10 - Social and Emotional Development)

This chapter revolves around theories and important aspects of social-emotional development. Theories presented includes Freud's psychosexual theory of development and Erikson's psychosocial theory. A discussion of contact confort draws heavily from the work done by Harlow. The ethological viewpoint is presented, along with some of the early work of the ethologists. A section on the effects of social deprivation presents research on mammals and humans. Also discussed are the development of infant attachment, separation, and exploratory behavior. Useful in providing an overview of these topics for child development - Freudian theory, Erikson's theory, contact comfort, attachment, and the ethological view.

Maurer, A. What children fear. In H. D. Behrens and G. Maynard (Eds.) The Changing Child: Readings in Child Development. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1972, pp. 83-92.

This study is a fairly thorough analysis of the specific fears of five to fourteen-year-old children. Children were simply asked "what are the things to be afraid of?" Eighty percent of children of five and six replied by naming one or more wild animals. Sixty percent of those between seven and twelve answered similarly. All four of the major theories of childhood (psychoanalyses, behaviorism, collective unconscious, and maturation) contribute, although incompletely, to an understanding of childhood fears. A strong maturational factor, partly influenced by intelligence and partly influenced by the amount of responsibility thrust upon the child, seems to be at work upon an archaic instinctual base. The child is born with the capacity to fear, apparently more than is necessary to preserve his life. Useful in discussing the development of fear and listing specific fears of children.

Muller, P. The Tasks of Childhood. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1969. (Chapter 8 - Infancy and its Developmental Tasks)

The emphasis in this chapter is on describing the important physiological, physical, and perceptual-motor developments that occur during infancy. Topics covered include coordination of eyes and movements, ingestion of solid food, acquisition of language, and toilet training. Stages and phases of these developmental tasks are delineated. Useful in outlining course of physiological, physical, and perceptual-motor development in the infant.

Petrochenko, G. On several reasons for the negative feelings and behavior of children. Doshkol' Noe Vospitanie, 1967, 40, 34-40.

Negative behavior and attitudes in the older preschool child are ascribed to 1) psychological features characteristic of the age, 2) physiological features similarly characteristic, 3) "incorrect system of training and incorrect methods and means of acting on the child", and 4) defects of training in the family. Useful in speculating on possible reasons for the negative feelings and behavior of children.

Ricciuti, H. N., and Poresky, R. H. Emotional behavior and development in the first year of life: An analysis of arousal, approach-withdrawal, and affective responses. In A. D. Pick (Ed.), Minnesota Symposia In Child Psychology vol. 6. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1972, pp. 69-96.

Purposes of the study were a) to develop conceptually and methodologically improved procedures for assessing infants' arousal, directional, & affective responses to 4 contrasting stimulus situations, b) to examine developmental changes in these responses in infants 3-12 months of age, c) to examine the nature and extent of individual differences in these responses, as well as their consistency across different stimulus situations and over a 3-month interval, and d) to examine interrelations among behavioral characteristics assessed. Thirty-two infants were presented with 4 stimuli (teddy bear, doll, jack-in-box, & buzzer) and responses were rated according to three categories: 1) arousal or activation, 2) directionality or approach-withdrawal behaviors, and 3) pleasure-displeasure or hedonic responses. (These 3 sets of characteristics correspond closely to 3 essential components of what many people regard as "emotional behavior".) Individual differences were appreciable, & varied with the particular behavioral characteristic being assessed, the stimulus situation, & age. Findings consistent with and provide additional support of long-view concerning emotional development in first year. In newborn it is only possible to differentiate between states of excitement or activation and states of quiescence. First affect clearly differentiated is distress, within 1st month. Pleasurable responses are differentiated at about 3 months. Still later in first year other affects become gradually differentiated (such as fear, anger, anxiety, affection). Procedures employed in this study depended primarily on overt behavioral cues. Authors state the desirability of employing physiological indicators concurrently.

Roger D. Readings in Child Psychology. Belmont, California: Brooks/Cole, 1969. (Chapter 5 - Emotional Development)

This chapter is a collection of four articles relevant to emotional development. The first, by Harry Harlow, looks at developmental stages (reflex, attachment, security, independence) in terms of how they develop in rhesus monkeys. Implications for human infant development are presented. The second article by Bronson examines the development of fear in man and other animals. Fear is defined as aversive reactions to novel visual patterns and appears to develop in human infants at 7 months. Bandura's article looks at children's tendencies to imitate film-mediated aggressive models. Their findings show that children who view aggression will display twice as much aggression as those who do not. The final article, by Fawe, considers disturbances experienced by children in their natural habitats. It is concluded that it may be fruitful to direct further study of disturbances in children toward an environment-centered orientation. Useful in looking at specific research on caretaker attachment, development of fear, imitation of aggression, and child disturbances.

Stechler, G., and Carpenter, G. A viewpoint on early affective development. In J. Hellmuth (Ed.), Exceptional Infant Vol. 1. New York: Brunner/Mazel, Inc., 1967, pp. 163-189.

The orienting question of this chapter is "How can the relationship between perception and affect during the infantile period be better understood?" The authors first discuss perceptual information-processing systems. Affect is then singled out as one component of the total information-adaptive behavior loop. The presentation of infantile affective states is restricted to a consideration of the states construed to be positive, involving approach, information gathering, and pleasant manifestations of bodily excitement. The authors conclude by making suggestions for a tentative framework for investigation. Useful in examining the relationship between affect and perception.

Taylor, M. K. The developmental study of the language of emotions. J. of Amer. Academy of Child Psychiatry, 1974, 13, 667-676.

The purpose of the study here reported is to explicate some of the processes by which emotions are named and described by children. Five-to-twelve-year-old children were asked to describe their experience of specific emotions. The assumption that with increasing age children would find the precipitants for feeling and would increasingly ascribe their emotional experience as physically internal, was comfirmed. Results are discussed in the context of a Piagetian framework. Useful in examining children's experience of particular emotions in a developmental, Piagetian framework.

Weinger, I. B., and Elkind, D. Child Development: A Core Approach New York: John Wiley and Sons, Incorporated, 1972. (Chapter 3 - Personality and Social Development and Chapter 7 - Personality and Social Development.)

Chapter 3 speaks to personality development of the infant according to two principles of development: progressive differentiation and hierarchical differentiation. At birth an infant has a limited repertoire of expressive behaviors and the differentiation of expressive behavior proceeds to pass through three important milestones: eye contact, babbling and imitation. In later infancy two other expressive behaviors begin to differentiate, those of attachment behavior and language acquisition. Eriksons' first two stages of psychosocial development are also described.

Chapter 7 speaks to the development of personality in the preschool child. The three important themes that characterize development during these years are discussed. They include: (1) the preschool child makes important progress in self-awareness and in the formation of positive and negative attitudes toward himself; (2) there is a tremendous expansion in the numbers and types of person with whom he comes in contact and in the nature of the interactions he has with them; and (3) the ages two to five are a crucial period for the disciplinary and role-modeling activities by which parents socialize their youngsters and transmit their culture to them.

Useful in examining infant's expressive behaviors and preschoolers' social development.

*White, B. L. Human Infants: Experience and Psychological Development. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1971.

White holds that the major goal of developmental psychology is to generate the knowledge that will enable man to structure early experience so as to maximize the likelihood of optimal development for each child. He does not claim to be comprehensive but instead presents the most important and revealing research on experience and psychological development in the infant. The focus is on the infant from birth to six months and the research of White and his colleagues. The substantive work on infant behavior is presented in two sections: the first having to do with the behavioral phenomena of infancy and the second having to do with how the experiences of infants influence their behavioral development. Within these chapters the empirical data is first presented and then a summary and assessment section speaks in practical terms about what we actually know based on the research. A critique of research methodology concludes that we are proceeding in an unproductive and scientifically improper fashion and calls for a radical reorientation of our research efforts. Useful in presenting a very functional review of literature on infant development, speaking to our state of knowledge in this area, and critiquing research methodology.

Wolfenstein, M. Children's Humor: A Psychological Analysis. Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1954.

It is the purpose of this book to trace some of the major aspects of the development of humor from its beginnings in early childhood. In interpreting jokes and humor the author follow the theory developed by Freud in Wit and Its Relation to the Unconscious and assumes that children's jokes have a wealth of meaning, not all of which is evident on the surface. In the first chapter the basic motive of joking is discussed: the wish to transform a painful experience and to extract pleasure from it. In chapter two play on the ambiguity of words is analyzed. Chapter three deals with the distinctive characteristics of jokes which children prefer during the latency period. Chapter four deals with the development of the joke facade and in chapter five the development of children's understanding of jokes is considered. Useful in examining development and characteristics of children's humor within a Freudian framework.

Wolman, R. N., Lewis, W. C., and King, M. The development of the language of emotions: Conditions of emotional arousal. Child Development, 1971, 42, 1288-1293.

This study demonstrates the general development progression of the increased internalization of the conditions of emotional arousal. Children in three age groups (5-7, 8-9, and 10-13) were asked when they feel a particular emotion. Major findings were: (1) As children of both sexes grow older, they report that the conditions which stimulate emotions occur more frequently within themselves, (2) Males more than females appear to be independent of external cues for emotional arousal, and (3) There are no consistent patterns with respect to the particular age at which a signficiant increase in "inside" arousal responses or decrease in "outside" arousal responses take place. Useful in examining the development of the language of emotions in children.

Yarrow, L. J., Rubenstein, J. L., and Pedersen, F. A. Infant and Environment: Early Cognitive and Motivational Development. Washington, D. C.: Hemisphere Publishing, 1975.

This book is a description of a naturalistic observational investigation of infants in the first 6 months of life. The major objective of the study is to contribute to an understanding of early environmental influences, including persons and inanimate influences. To achieve this objective, there were 3 major steps: (1) to differentiate the natural environment in conceptually meaningful terms through detailed analyses of caregivers' behaviors and the properties of proximal stimuli in the infant's environment, (2) to measure varied aspects of infant development, including social, cognitive, motor, and motivational functions; and (3) to analyze the relationships between these differentiated dimensions of the environment and infant characteristics. A general finding was that the dependence of the inanimate and the social environment, in conjunction with relationships found between social stimulation and social responsiveness and language, on the one hand, and between properties of inaminate stimulation and exploratory behavior on the other, indicate that both inanimate stimulation and social stimulation make a distinctive contribution. The study generates many findings, however, and treats them in such a way that the book also becomes a discussion of the state of the existing and in the domain of early experience as it affects the behavior of human infants. Useful in presenting an observational research model and in discussing state of knowledge in the area of experience and development in infancy.

III. Reading's Related To Affective Development Of Handicapped Children

A. Mental Retardation

Bijou, S. W. The mentally retarded child. In P. Cramer (Ed.), Readings in Development Psychology Today. Del Mar, California: Communications/Research/Machines, Incorporated, 1967, p. 149-155.

The mentally retarded child is seen as an individual whose rate of development has been slowed down. Bijou applies several principles from studies of operant conditioning to understanding this kind of handicap. He discusses from factors that may contribute to delays and failures in development and the ways in which they may occur. He points out that abnormalities in anatomical structure or physiological functioning may make it impossible for a child to make certain motor responses, or may severely restrict the range of stimuli with which he comes in contact. He discusses the effects of inadequate or indiscriminate reinforcement in slowing down the child's development, and he points out the consequences that may develop from insufficient discrimination training. He shows how reinforcing undersirable behavior may actually contribute to retarded development. Finally, he discusses how severe punishment, whether intentional or unintentional, may result in developmental retardation. (Editor abstract)

Hunter, M. H., Schueman, H., and Friedlander, G. The Retarded Child from Birth to Five. New York: John Day, 1972.

This book, which is multidisciplinary in its approach, presents data, insights, extrapolations, and educated guesses about the young retarded child based on many years of experience with trainable children and their families at the Shield Institute for Retarded Children. The major emphasis is on services for the trainable mentally retarded child and contributions are made to the areas of early identification and intervention, comprehensive interdisciplinary evaluation, suitable treatment programs, the process of continuing re-evaluation, and an understanding of the vital role of the family in the progress of the child. This volume clearly defines the population worked with, the rationale for programming, suitable materials and training techniques, the results already obtained and their logical extensions and implications for the future in the area of infant and preschool programs for the trainable mentally retarded child. Useful in describing a multidisciplinary program for the retarded child and his family.

*Hutt, M. L., and Gibby, R. W. (Eds.) The Mentally Retarded Child: Development, Education and Treatment, 2nd Ed. Boston, Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon, Incorporated, 1965.

The second edition of this book on the mentally retarded child is identical in purpose to the first edition -- it attempts to integrate the newer findings and methodologies and make them available to the teaching community and the general public. In their orientation the authors view the retarded individual as a unique personality and feel that we must seek to understand the multiple causes of his current status so that we can apply in a creative and constructive manner the optional methods of education, guidance, and treatment. Chapters include: (1) the problem of mental retardation, (2) concepts of intelligence and intelligence tests, (3) classification and characteristics of mentally retarded children, (4) etiology of mental retardation, (5) Development of the personality, (6) conflict and anxiety, (7) organization of the personality, (8) problems of adjustment, (9) assessment and evaluation, (1) parental reactions, (11) educational management and guidance, (12) special education methods, (13) society's role in programs for the mentally retarded. Useful in drawing together information on all the important variables in mental retardation in children.

Jordan, T. E. The Mentally Retarded, 3rd Ed. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1972.

The purpose of this book is to convey important information and research about the mentally retarded. The chapters included are: (1) Delineating mental retardation, (2) Research, (3) Chronology, (4) The family, (5) Theories of development, (6) Characteristics of the mentally retarded, (7) Residential living, (8) Language, (9) Psychodiagnostics, (10) The sources of mental retardation, (11) Patterns of development, (12) Therapeutic considerations, (13) Education, and (14) Independent living. Useful in providing information on all important aspects of mental retardation.

Levinson, A. The Mentally Retarded Child. New York: John Day Company, 1965.

This book provides an introduction to the study of mental retardation in children. It describes the Dr. Julian D. Levinson Research Foundation and covers these topics: the parents of mentally retarded children, advice to parents, a historical survey, what is mental retardation, the brain, how the diagnoses is made, early recognition, causes of mental retardation, prevention of mental retardation, treatment of mental retardation, education, community and state responsibility, research, and the outlook for the future. Useful in providing a good introduction to the topic mental retardation in children.

*Sternlicht, M., and Deutsch, M. R. Personality Development and Social Behavior in the Mentally Retarded. Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1972.

This book is intended as a comprehensive, wide-ranging experimental and clinical investigation of the personality of the mental retardate in all its phases. The keynote theme of the authors approach to the subject consists in the understanding and appreciation of the mental retardate not as an odd or idiosyneratic entity, but rather as a human being with certain deficiencies and limitations which create special problems of emotional and social adjustment. The book is divided into two sections: first, a theoretical section treating questions of personality development, personality dynamics, environmental influences, the self-concept, personality traits, and deviant behavior; and secondly, an applied section dealing with problems of classroom adjustment, social behavior, vocational adjustment, and leisure time pursuits. Useful in presenting a thorough and up-to-date report on the personality development of mental retardates from psychological and educational viewpoints.

Webster, T. G. Problems of emotional development in young retarded children. American J. of Psychiatry, 1963, 120, 38-43.

Diagnostic studies of a series of 159 preschool retarded children are reported with a focus on the disturbances in emotional development. It is emphasized that mental retardation is a clinical developmental syndrome which regularly includes an impairment in emotional as well as in intellectual development. Psychological characteristics which are more closely related to the degree of retardation than to any other diagnostic factor are termed the primary psychopathology of the mental retardation syndrome. The primary psychopathology is described and illustrated in terms of the developmental disturbance and special descriptive traits. Points of differential diagnosis are discussed. Useful in discussing clinical traits of the mentally retarded.

Wiener, W. K. Social-emotional development and creative explorations for the handicapped student. Paper presented at the International Symposium on Learning Disabilities, ERIC Reports, 1973, ED102 775.

Described in a public school project in which 47 educable mentally retarded (EMR) students (grades 9 and 10) spend one-third of their school day in regular high school elective offerings, one-third in remedial academics and prevocational skills training, and one-third in creative leisure arts activities. Discussed briefly are the remedial-prevocational portions of the curriculum including students' participation in a programmed instructional series geared to improve language and intellectual capacities and a program of vocational guidance and career exploration experiences. The major portion of the document explains creative leisure arts activities and five two-week personal experience modules titled "You And Your Feelings", "You And Your Future Family", "A Personalized You", "You and the Drug Culture", and "You and Others". Aspects of the modules described include role playing emotional situations, multimedia presentations concerning human sexuality, and student visits to hospitalized persons. Successful results of the program such as decreases in aggressive behavior, increased school participation, and improved scores on a Person-Group Relationship Scale (which is appended) are noted. Also appended is a list of creative and leisure arts program components. Useful in describing a social-emotional curriculum for EMR students and in reporting the gains to be made from it.

B. Hearing Impaired/Deaf

DiCarlo, L. M., and Dolphin, J. E. Social adjustment and Personality Development of Deaf Children: A Review of Literature. Exceptional Children, 1952, 8, 111-118.

In this article, the authors survey psychological research pertaining to social adjustment and personality development of the deaf. Work in this area has not infrequently produced conflicting or inconsistent findings. The authors account for at least part of this in terms of methodological deficiencies. Useful in summarizing relevant research on development of deaf children and in pointing out common sources of error.

Meadow, K. P. Early Manual Communication in Relation to the Deaf Child's Intellectual, Social, and Communicative Functioning. American Annals of the Deaf, 1968, 113, 29-41.

The purpose of this research article is to examine the question "Does early exposure to manual communication have a facilitating effect on the intellectual and social development of the deaf child?" Background information is provided and then four studies are reviewed in which the dependent variables are (1) intellecutal or academic functioning, (2) social functioning, and (3) communicative functioning, and the independent variables are (1) socialization climate and (2) the existence of a system of early family communication. The results show, contrary to public opinion, that early exposure to manual communication does have a facilitating effect on the intellectual and social development of the deaf child. Useful in presenting research evaluating early communication training and subsequent impact on the deaf child's intellectual, social, and communicative functioning.

Meadow. K. P. Parental response to the medical anbiguities of congenital deafness. J. of Health and Social Behavior, 1968, 9, 229-309.

Interviews with parents of deaf children are analyzed, illustrating events leading to the diagnosis and treatment of profound congenital deafness. Three recessive stages of this process are identified, each of which is punctuated by ambiguous elements related to the nature of congenital deafness. Specifically, it is noted that this condition is "invisible", usually irreversible, often has a non-specific etiology, and is a relatively unique medical event. While the parent, standing "in loco infantis" vis-vis the physician, expects an immediate diagnosis, followed by an ameliorative prescription for treatment and firm etiological information, this is often impossible. The resulting strain for the parents and delay in treament for the child have serious consequences for both. It is suggested that the data have theoretical implications for the study of the doctor-patient relationship, demonstrating that a simple role model is inadequate. Theoretical understanding of social interaction and practical understanding leading to better human outcomes of the diagnostic process both demand a multi-dimensional approach to the study of behavior in the medical setting. Useful in discussing diagnostic and treatment issues of congenital deafness in a medical setting.

Meadow, K. P. Self-image, family climate, and deafness. Social Forces. 1969, 47, 428-438.

The process of developing self-image in the deaf child is examined from the perspective of symbolic interactionist theory. Deaf children with deaf parents would demonstrate more positive self-images because of the presence of family communication (the manual language of signs) and the less traumatic reaction of the family to a diagnosis of deafness. Evidence from test scores, teacher-counselor ratings, and family interviews indicates that the deaf children with deaf parents made more positive self-evaluations, as predicted. It is suggested that differences in parental expectations for academic and communicative achievement, in relation to the child's ability to fulfill parental goals, is a prime influence on self-image. The child's definition and interpretation of his own situation, relative to siblings and peers, is also important. Useful in discussing development of self-concept in deaf children.

Meadow, K. P. Sociolinguistics sign language, and the deaf sub-culture. In T. J. O'Rourke (Ed.), Psycholinguistics and Total Communication: The State of the Art. Washington, D. C.: American Annals of the Deaf, 1972, p. 19-33.

This chapter examines language development in the context of the social environment in the deaf sub-culture. Background material on the deaf community and on sociolinguistics as a field of study is presented initially. Then four areas of possible research are explored: (1) codes and code switching in sign language; (2) the process of socialization to the deaf linguistic community; (3) the history of sign language maintenana, promulgation, and subjugation compared to that of other linguistic communities; and (4) some notes on observations regarding etiquette and ecology of silent or signed conversation. Useful in providing a good discussion of sociolinguistics and the deaf and in recommending specific research.

Meadow, K. P., and Schlesigner, H. S. The prevalence of behavioral problems in a population of deaf school children. American Annals of the Deaf, 1971, 116, 346-348.

A survey of behavioral problems was undertaken at a state residential school for the deaf. Teachers and counselors were asked to identify those students who: (1) were severely emotionally disturbed or (2) exhibited behavior which demanded a disproportionate share of caretakers' time. Among the school population 12% were considered to be emotionally disturbed (Five times greater than estimates for the general school population); an additional 20% were considered to be midly disturbed (3 times greater than expected). An informal census of administrators of day programs for the deaf indicated that proportions of students in both categories were approximately the same as those found in the residential school. The need for additional mental health services for deaf children far exceeds those which are available. Useful in discussing behavioral problems of deaf children.

Schlesinger, H. S. Beyond the range of sound - The non-obological aspects of deafness. California Medicine, 1969, 110, 213-217.

Historically, deaf persons were seen as less than human - as "beasts of the field" who could not speak and thus had no legal rights. With educational advances, both the achievements of deaf individuals and the attitudes of the hearing toward them have improved. However, the total scope of impairment of early profound deafness remains considerable despite vast advances in the fields of medicine, audiology, and education. Traumatic parental reaction to the diagnosis and distorted parent-child communications may contribute to the impairment.

Recent research has added to our knowledge of the social and psychiatric ramifications of deafness, but a lack of mental health professionals capable of communicating with deaf persons retards progress in this area. Useful in discussing attitudes toward deafness.

*Schlesinger, H. S. The deaf preschooler and his many faces. Research Seminar on the Vocational Rehabilitation of Deaf Persons. May-June, 1968. (Available from H. S. Schlesinger, M.D., Langley Porter Neuro-psychiatric Institute, San Francisco, California.)

This article gives a thorough description of the young deaf child and his development. The author discusses the causes of deafness, developments in etiology, treatments, personality characteristics of deaf children, the diagnosis of deafness, the process of identifying deafness and the impact upon the family, the problems encountered by parents, the interaction between deaf or normal parents and deaf children, and the development of communication in deaf children. Useful in providing a thorough description of young deaf children.

Schlesinger, H. S. Language acquisition in four deaf children. Deaf and Speech News, 1972, 4D, 4-28.

The author followed four children whose families make use of the language of signs and fingerspelling with concomitant use of speech and collected monthly observational and videotape evidence of language acquisition. The analysis thus far indicates that the milestones in sign language acquisition generally parallel the milestones of spoken language acquisition. It was also found that knowledge of sign language at these early ages has not interferred with speech acquisition; on the contrary, the number of spoken words and lipreading facility increased with sign language acquisition. There was also a decreased level of communicative frustration in the four families observed. Author strongly recommends that continuing linguistic research be done on the sign language and speech acquisition of infants from the time their deafness is first diagnosed. Useful in discussing development of language in deaf children.

Schlesinger, H.S., and Meadow, K. P. Development of maturity in deaf children. Exceptional Children, 1972, February, 461-467.

Research findings reporting teacher-counselor ratings of deaf children from differing home and school settings show significant differences in assessments for maturity. An analysis of various developmental crises for which deafness has a definite impact is presented, based on Erikson's theory of epigenetic development. Both research findings and theoretical analysis point to the conclusion that immaturity is not a necessary consequence of auditory deprivation. Useful in discussing development of maturity in deaf.

*Schlesinger, H. S., and Meadow, K. P. Sound and Sign: Childhood Deafness and Mental Health. Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1972.

This book attempts to apply a developmental approach to the study and treatment of deafness. The first few chapters present a theoretical framework for viewing the development of deaf individuals through the life cycle. Results of research studies related to developmental aspects of deafness are then presented. These include a study of the linguistic development of four young deaf children exposed to both oral and manual communication within their families; a study of mother-child interaction in families with deaf and with hearing children; and a study comparing the functioning of deaf children with deaf parents and with hearing parents in residential and day schools. Finally, evidence of the increased incidence of behavioral problems in a deaf school population is assessed and direct and indirect treatment of mental health problems in a deaf population through therapy or consultation is discussed. The final chapter describes a suggested model for a comprehensive program of community psychiatry for a deaf community. Useful in presenting research on the development of deaf children and in discussing development and treatment issues.

*Schuldt, W. J., and Schuldt, D. A. A review of recent personality research on deaf children. In E. P. Trapp and P. Himelstein (Eds.). Readings on the Exceptional Child, 2nd Ed. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1972, p. 351-362.

This review generally finds that children with severe hearing losses seem to manifest more abnormal personality characteristics and less adequate adjustment when compared to hearing control groups or normative data on hearing children. These findings do not necessarily indicate psychopathology resulting from deafness and should rather be interpreted as providing normative data on a minority group who live in a different educational and social environment and who do not have the language and other requisite skills necessary to develop personality characteristics or modes of adjustment similar to the majority of hearing children. There is a paucity of personality research on deaf children in which an experiment has been conducted utilizing measurable independent variables which can be manipulated and the effects of this manipulation can be evaluated. Useful in reviewing and evaluating research on personality in deaf children.

Vernon, M. Multiply handicapped deaf children: Current status. In E. P. Trapp and P. Himelstein (Eds.). Readings in the Exceptional Child 2nd Ed. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1972, p. 379-396.

The data reported here provides factual information about the magnitude and nature of the problem of the multiply handicapped deaf child. Theoretically, it is now apparent that behavior noted as characteristic of deaf children cannot be explained primarily as a reaction to deafness as has been done in the past. It is instead often an interactional effect of both the loss of hearing and of other central nervous system lesions associated with the condition causing deafness. The impluse disorders, psychoses, and general behavioral disorders found in the deaf population can also be accounted for in part by the central nervous system pathology present. From a practical viewpoint, an understanding of the kinds of disabilities and their prevalences provides a description of the educational, vocational, and mental health problem which is to be met. What is needed for the multiply handicapped deaf are educational-training programs for the young and vocational services for adults. Useful in reviewing research on the multiply handicapped deaf and in making recommendations for their treatment

C. Speech Impaired

Goodstein, L. D., and Block, E. L. A survey of the literature in functional speech disorders and personality: Forty years of research. In E. P. Trapp and P. Himelstein (Eds.). Readings in the Exceptional Child 2nd Ed. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1972, p. 399-423.

The purpose of this paper was to survey the literature reporting some empirical relationships between measured personality and the major functional disorders of speech-articulation disorders, delayed speech, voice disorders and stuttering. In each of these four areas, the published literature of the past 40 years was categorized according to parental personality and adjustment and according to personality and adjustment of the speech-disordered individual himself, first as a child and then as an adult. Where appropriate, the methodological and conceptual limitations of the studies were pointed out and suggestions for additional research made. While some studies have utilized careful procedures and have yielded provocative findings, their number has been small. The methodological and conceptual inadequacies of the greater proportion of studies were so important that few generalizations were clearly suggested, emphasizing the need for more and better research. Useful in reviewing and evaluating research on functional speech disorders.

D. Visually Impaired/Blind

AAIB National Conference on pre-school services for visually handicapped children and their families. ERIC Reports, 1965, ED 013 511.

These 11 papers were presented at the American Association of Instructors of the Blind National Conference on preschool services for visually handicapped children and their families. Physicians, soical workers, educators, and representatives of community services participated in the conference held in March, 1965. In the keynote address, Elizabeth Maloney spoke on "What are we doing and what can we do for visually handicapped preschool children." Other papers presented were: (1) "Methods used in defining blind children in greater Cleveland, (2) Identification and evaluation of infants and chidren with visual defects: The role of the pediatrician, (3) The identification, diagnosis, and evaluation of eye diseases, (4) Identification, diagnosis, and evaluation, (5) Counseling with parents of blind children, (6) Some thoughts on the emotional development of preschool children, (7) Children's Bureau Health Services for children with visual handicaps, (8) Referral to and use of community resources, (9) What effects blind children's development, and (10) Liaison with and reporting to schools." Useful in looking at development of blind infants and preschoolers and in speaking to resources for intervention and help.

Fraiberg, Selma. Separation Crisis in Two Blind Children. The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child. New York: Quandrangle Books, 1972.

This article summarizes some observations of separation anxiety in blind children in the second year. A review of separation anxiety in the sighted child is first presented, followed by a discussion of the blind child. One of the topics discussed is evocative memory. Two case histories are presented which describe, in greater detail, separation anxiety in the blind. Useful in discussing separation anxiety in the blind infant.

*Halliday, C. The visually impaired child: Growth, learning, development -- Infancy to school age. ERIC Reports, 1970, Ed 038 811.

Addressed to both professionals and parents, this handbook delineates visual impairment and discusses child growth with reference to the visually handicapped. Development in the visually impaired of self-care skills and along physical, social/personal, intellectual, and emotional lines is described and contrasted to that of the normal child. Also, school readiness problems for visually and multiply handicapped children are discussed. Materials and services are considered and their sources listed. Useful in providing information on the development of children with visual impairments.

E. Physically Handicapped

Fishman, C. A. Maternal correlates of self-esteem and overall adjustment in children with birth defects. Child Psychiatry and Human Development, 1971, 1, 255-265.

The present study was designed to test hypotheses relating eight maternal attitudes and behaviors to the self-esteem and overall adjustment of children with birth defects. To test these hypotheses, 35 pre-and early adolescent children with birth defects and their mothers were each independently assessed, by means of questionnaires and systematic, quantitative ratings of semistructured interviews. The results generally support the hypotheses for five of the maternal variables: (a) active "cognitive confrontation" of the child's defect at the time of its discovery; (b) open communication with the child about his defect and related issues; (c) liking and respect for the child; (d) a positive accepting outlook towards the child's future; and (3) encouragement of the child's independence and achievement. Useful in maternal attitudes in handicapped children.

Oswin, M. Behavior Problems Amongst Children with Cerebral Palsy. Bristol, Great Britain: John Wright and Sons, 1967.

This book presents a descriptive study of behavior problems amongst cerebral palsied children. Part I discusses: (1) types of cerebral palsy and some causes, (2) a brief pattern of the cerebral palsy child's life from early years to adolescence, and (3) the effect of the cerebral palsy child upon his family, in particular his parents. In Part II the behavior disorders characteristic of the cerebral palsy condition are presented. In Part III the possible causes of the behavior problems and their consequences are described. The last sections present some possible ways to deal with the emotional and intellectual problems of the cerebral palsy child. Useful in describing characteristic problems of the cerebral palsy child and in providing some solutions to these problems.

Waldrop, M. F., and Halverson, C. F. Minor physical anomalies: Their incidence and relation to behavior in a normal and a deviant sample. In M. S. Smart and R. C. Smart (Eds.) Preschool Children. New York: MacMillan, 1973, p. 63-72.

This paper reports three studies on the incidence of minor anatomical anomalies and their relation to hyperactive, uncontrolled behavior. First, an original study was replicated with normal two-and-a-half-year-old children. Second, the original study was extended by evaluating the stability of the findings over five years. Third, the researchers observed children with cogenital defects in hearing and in speech production to provide further evidence on probable etiologies of these anomalies. Consistently across samples, boys with some anomalies seemed to have trouble with inner controls and were highly active. Girls with the same number of anomalies were variable across samples - in one sample they were similar to the boys and in another sample they tended toward immobile behavior. Useful in presenting research on how physical anomalies affect behavior.

F. Emotionally Disturbed

Burgio, M., and Burgio, A. Childhood psychoses and the loop phenomenon. Psychoeducational Journal for the Treatment of Children, 1975, 2, 1-15.

The authors of this article view childhood psychoses as being characterized by massive disturbances of behavioral, cognitive, organic, affective, and conative structures and propose the triadic approach in reaching the child. It is their contention that the psychotic child must be reached in the most basic, human, and unifying way. The triadic approach consists of interpersonal contact between man, woman, and child, based on a family-like structure. The contacting and awakening of the of the dormant self of the child, his response to this awakening, and his communication to others, is called the loop phenomenon. Two cases which illustrate this approach are presented. Useful in presenting a humanistic technique for working with psychotic children.

Engle, M. Psychopathology in Childhood: Social, Diagnostic, and Therapeutic Aspects. New York: Harcourt Brace Janovich, Incorporated, 1972.

This book attempts to give an overall picture of the nature of and approaches to child psychopathology. Chapter one, "Social Aspects", attempts to show the interplay of facts and beliefs in shaping certain social policies toward children. Chapter two, "Diagnostic Aspects", shows the spectrum of psychopathological disorders. Chapter three, "Therapeutic Aspects", presents a broad picture of the variety of approaches to child therapy, and then concentrates on the theories and techniques of four major approaches: psychoanalysis, intensive psychotherapy, family therapy, and educationally oriented residential treatment. Useful in acquainting one with facts, issues, and problems in child clinical psychology.

Ferster, C. B. The Autistic Child. In P. Cramer (Ed.). Readings in Developmental Psychology Today. Del Mar, California: Communications/Research/Machines, Inc., 1967, p. 165-169.

The behavior of the autistic child is highly disturbed and often destructive. Ferster points out that such primitive behaviors are also seen in normal children, but they occur less often and with less intensity. He focuses on postnatal experiences to account for the development of the disorder. He suggests ways in which the responses, or nonresponses, of parents may encourage a child to remain at a simple level of development, or may even promote regression to primitive behavior. Even though such experiences occur in the lives of all children, the author suggests that their frequency and the intensity of their occurence in the life of the autistic child are responsible for the extreme behavioral disorders. He discusses some of the problems involved in the treatment of autistic children and concludes by describing in detail an initial therapy session between a gifted child therapist and an autistic girl; he analyzes the events of that session in terms of behavioral principles derived from the experimental laboratory. (Editor abstract)

*Herbert, M. Emotional Problems of Development in Children. London: Academic Press, 1975.

This book attempts to describe problem behavior and its evolution in the context of the crucial events - social, emotional, cognitive, and physical taking place at different stages of development. Deviant emotions and behaviors are conceptualized as the consequences of the child's failure to learn successful ways of coping with developmental tasks, or as resulting from his learning inappropirate strategies for dealing with life. Chapters thus speak to problems that arise at different stages of development. Useful as a guide to some of the theoretical issues and empirical studies and information which are relevant to child psychopathology.

Rimland, B. Infantile Autism: The Syndrome and Its Implications for a Neural Theory of Behavior. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1964.

In this monograph Rimland, who has done extensive research on autism, describes the syndrome, relates theories of autism and controversies in the area, and formulates a theory of behavior. It is a comprehensive view covering these areas: the syndrome of early infantile autism, the etiology of autism, a theory of autism, autism as cognitive dysfunction, the specific biology of autism, and implications for the study of personality and for a theory of behavior. Useful in describing autism and speaking to the issues that have been debated over the subject.

Schopler, E., and Reicher, R. J. Psychobiological referents for the treatment of autism. Paper presented at Indiana University Colloquium on Infantile Autism, Indiana University Medical Center Indianapolis, Indiana, April, 1968. ERIC Reports, ED 028 814.

In studies of preschool children, four clusters of symptoms seem most useful in characterizing those children who manifest autism: (1) failure to establish human relatedness and meaningful social attachments; (2) impairment of motivation to become competent; (3) disturbances of perceptual integration, (4) impairment of the development of cognitive functions. One of the most important impairments of autistic children is perceptual inconstancy. The likelihood of physiological and biochemical changes under autistic conditions of sensory deprivation require that perceptual patterns be promoted in the child as early as possible. A program of treatment should include parent participation and parent education, with the goal of reducing distortions in the parent-child relationship. Otherwise, treatment of the preschool autistic child should be concerned with establishing perceptual organization and cortical control over his sensory experiences. Further research is needed on the relationship between parental attiudes or child rearing practices and the existence of an autistic child. Useful in characterizing autism and recommending some treatment procedures.

Stern, C., et al. Therapeutic interventions with emotionally disturbed preschool children. March, 1971. ERIC Reports. Ed 058 945.

This investigation consisted of two studies. In Experiment I three methods of dealings with the identified emotionally disturbed child were compared, simultaneously testing the hypothesis that community personnel can be taught to work effectively with these children. Experiment II compared the preschool population of two clinic schools using a similar psychodynamic approach. One aspect of the investigation was designed to determine whether there were any basic differences in the type of emotional problems which charaterized children from different socioeconomic backgrounds. In Experiment I, the success attained showed that community personnel can help slightly disturbed children. Although the second Experiment was never fully implemented, there seems to be sufficient basis to conclude that the problem behaviors of young children are very similar, regardless of background. Useful in examining approaches and resources for dealing with emotionally disturbed children.

Wing, J. K. (Ed.) Early Childhood Autism: Clincial, Educational, and Social Aspects. London: Pergamon Press, 1966.

This book represents an attempt to bring together and integrate the substantial body of information which is now available about autistic children. The contributors come from several disciplines and each has a distinctive approach, but a common point of view emerges. The autistic child is handicapped by a basic inability to integrate visual and auditory experiences into the meaningful patterns which form a basis for the normal child's developing understanding of the world. If the fundamental problems are recognized early and maximum help given when it is most needed, the natural tendency towards improvement as the child matures can be fostered, the disturbed behavior managed, the family supported, and the child's disabilities minimized by skilled remedial teaching. Useful in providing information on clinical, educational, and social aspects of autism.

G. Other

Haimowitz, N. R. Development patterns: Birth to five years. In M. L. Haimowitz and N. R. Haimowitz (Eds.). Human Development: Selected Readings (2nd Ed.). New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1966, p. 119-126.

Haimowitz presents some of the principles that guide development, explaining that development is characterized by consistency, continuity, and orderliness. The intelligence quotient is explained and a chart provides established norms for perceptual-motor, language, and personal-social-cultural developmental milestones from birth to five years.

Definitions are given of the retarded and "organic" child and brief discussions point out developmental trends for these children in terms of their disabilities. It is further explained that I.Q. is a function of a number of factors in addition to one's basic capacity and pace and that it is thus difficult to assess an individual's developmental potential. Useful in providing a discussion of I.Q., retardation, and organicity as they relate to development from birth to five.

Interchange between Leo J. Hanvik and John F. Mesinger on "Brain Damaged Children", Letters to the Editor. Exceptional Children, April, 1966.

Hanvik reports briefly on his research into diagnostic procedures, the use of the EEG, and the range of frequency of diagnosis in cases where "brain damage" might be involved. Hanvik proposes that the time has come for educators to dispense completely with all of the diagnostic categories used in the entire mental health field. Mesinger replies that greater cooperation between psychologists and educators is necessary if we are to successfully educate disturbed children. It may be helpful if professionals analyzed the important issues in nontechnical education journals. Useful in delineating issues related to value of diagnosis for educators of "brain damanged" and emotionally disturbed.

Jordan, T. E. Research on the handicapped child and the family. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1962, 8, 243-260.

This article reviews research on the handicapped child and the family. Three major areas are covered: (1) research on the family and constituent members; (2) research on constructs such as crisis, attitudes, and religion; and (3) research possibilities. It is generally concluded that although much work has been done there is a need for more research on such human problems. Useful in reviewing research on the handicapped child and the family.

Kirk, S. A., and Weiner, B. B. (Eds.). Behavioral Research on Exceptional Children. Washington, D. C.: Council for Exceptional Children, 1963.

The present monograph is one of a series of publications of the Council for Exceptional Children dealing with contemporary problems and issues in the education of children and youth who require a variety of special services. It provides selected reviews of relevant studies in each major category of exceptionality, with the focus specifically upon behavioral research on exceptional children. Chapters include: (1) the gifted, (2) the educable mentally retarded, (3) the trainable mentally retarded, (4) the visually impaired, (5) the hard of hearing, (6) the deaf, (7) children with cerebral dysfunction, (8) children with orthopedic handicaps and special health problems, (9) children with speech and language impairments, (10) the emotionally disturbed, (11) the delinquent, and (12) administration. Each chapter includes a definition of the subject to be covered, a description of the topics reviewed, the reviews of research for each topic, and in most cases -- a final summary comment on the status of research in the area under consideration and on problems which need investigation. Useful in providing reviews of behavioral research in each category of exceptionality.

Siegel, E. Helping the Brain Injured Child. New York: Association for Brain Injured Children, 1962.

This book is in response to the need of a multitude of families for direct, effective guidance and education in the care and upbringing of a child handicapped by brain injury. It defines the condition brain injured and presents the common causes, the characteristics of the condition, and the diagnostic methods. It speaks mostly to ways of developing good mental hygiene and presents several specific educational activities for brain injured children. Useful in providing guidance for helping brain injured children develop good mental hygiene and in helping them with specific educational problems.

Taylor, E. M. Psychological Appraisal of Children with Cerebral Defects. Cambridge, Massachusetts, Harvard University Press, 1961.

This book, the result of many years of experience with large numbers of children with cerebral difficulties, is designed to help in the understanding and management of some of the serious problems arising from such conditions. It is primarily meant for clinical psychologists concerned with differential diagnosis in children with cerebral defects and it advocates a clinical orientation. Biographies of certain typical child patients are presented to show how certain psychological traits, tendencies, and problems continue but change form in the course of the child's development. The author also presents in considerable technical detail her methods of diagnosis. Useful for clinicians working with diagnosis of children with cerebral defects.

Weiner, I. B., and Elkind, D. Child Development: A Core Approach New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1972 (Chapter 3 - Personality and Social Development and Chapter 7 - Personality and Social Development.)

Chapter 3 speaks to personality development of the infant according to two principles of development: progressive differentiation and hierarchical differentiation. At birth an infant has a limited repertoire of expressive behaviors and the differentiation of expressive behavior proceeds to pass through three important milestones: eye contact, babbling, and imitation. In later infancy two other expressive behaviors begin to differentiate, those of attachment behavior and language acquisition. Erikson's first two stages of psychosocial development are also described.

Chapter 7 speaks to the development of personality in the preschool child. The three important themes that characterize development during these years are discussed. They include: (1) the preschool child makes important progress in self-awarenss and in the formation of positive and negative attitudes toward himself; (2) there is a tremendous expansion in the numbers and types of person with whom he comes in contact and in the nature of the interactions he has with them; and (3) the ages two to five are a crucial period for the disciplinary and role-modeling activities by which parents socialize their youngsters and transmit their culture to them. Useful in examining infants' expressive behaviors and preschoolers' social development.

IV. Readings Related to Affective Education and Curriculum

A. Normal

Alford, R. W. Home-oriented preschool education: Program overview and requirements. ERIC Reports ED 072 843, 1972.

The introductory volume to the Home-Oriented Preschool Education (HOPE) Program describes all elements of the program and the requirements for implementation. HOPE is an approach to education for three, four, and five year old children that utilizes televised instruction, mobile classroom instruction, and parent instruction. This booklet is one of seven designed to guide program implementation and operation. Areas covered are (1) home-oriented preschool education -- television motivates learning, group sessions for social learning, parent involvement extends learning, quality control; (2) a proven program -- a brief description of the field testing; (3) program prerequisites -- estimate student population, locate TV facilities, survey mobile classroom sites, orient and involve parents; (4) implementing HOPE/the field team -- team members, facilities and equipment, operation costs, HOPE program organization; (5) implementing HOPE/materials production team; and (6) program options. Useful in describing home-oriented preschool education project.

Boger, R. P. and Cunningham, J. L. A longitudinal study of the social development of three and four-year-old children in a preschool program. Paper presented at American Psychological Association, Honolulu, Hawaii, September, 1972.

In this study, children were assigned to one of two classes, one employing an experimental curriculum and were then tested on numerous variables examining social development. The long term goal of the study was to develop a specific curriculum to increase positive social skills in preschoolers. Results did indicate differences between the control and experimental group, but are considered tentative because of the limited sample size. Some of the learning activities employed in the experimental curriculum are presented. Useful in discussing a curriculum for enhancing social development in preschoolers in presenting a review of literature on social differences in preschoolers.

*Brennan, E. C. Meeting the affective needs of young children. Children Today, 1974, 3, 22-25.

This article is an attempt to explore children's affective needs as displayed in a day care setting, and to discuss some specific ways to meet them. Four major steps in individualizing affective needs are outlined (information gathering, observation, assessment, and intervention) and examples of child behavior that frequently concerns teachers are given, together with suggestions on how to ameliorate them. The uniqueness of each child and need for an individualized program are stressed. Useful in providing a guide for teachers to follow in meeting young children's affective needs and planning intervention programs for specific problem behaviors.

Brown, C. T. Affective learning. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Speech Communication Association, Dec., 1974, ERIC Reports, ED 107 354.

This paper addresses itself to the question, "What does feeling have to do with knowing?" Two movements in affective education are discussed which have come into focus in recent years and which attempt to define the relationship between knowing and feeling. The first, a conscious application of the role of arousal in learning, emphasizes arousal in learning as a basic ingredient in memory, implying, and creating. In this movement, classroom settings are created where the teacher encourages student participation instead of spectatorship, talks with respect to students, and employs both practical anecdotes and abstract concepts in teaching. The second movement constitutes a variety of explorations in arousal and has elicited the greatest amount of public criticism. This movement attempts to bring people into direct contact with their emotions through sensitivity training, encountering, transactional analysis, and self-awareness sessions. It is suggested that all teachers examine these movements carefully and determine the assumptions concerning human nature on which they are operating in the classroom. Useful in discussing the basis of movements in affective education.

Brown, G. I. Human Teaching for Human Learning. New York: Viking Press, 1971.

This book stresses the need for affective education and presents a new approach - confluent education. Confluent education is the terms for the integration or flowing together of the affective and cognitive elements in individual and group learning. This book confronts the educational scene as it exists and demonstrates how teaching and learning can become more human and productive. Background is presented on the Ford-Esalen project and some techniques and practical applications of confluent education are provided. Useful in presenting a model for integrating affective and cognitive elements in education.

Butler, A. L. Areas of recent research in early childhood education. Childhood Education, 1971, December, 143-147.

This article briefly reviews some of the recent research in early childhood education, analyzes the trends in early education, and emphasizes the need for more research and meaningful educational programs. The growth of new programs seems to have started all over again a reemphasis on the IQ, which appears to be a completely inadequate method of program evaluation. We have only begun to explore the role of modeling as it relates to the parent and the teacher. We badly need more information about what is to be gained or lost through the provision of programs earlier than three years of age. It is highly important for education to contribute to the young child's self-fulfillment in the broadest sense. Useful in summarizing research trends in early education and recommending the humanistic idea of education.

Clarizio, H. F. Mental Health and the Educative Process: Selected Readings, 1969. Available from Rand McNalley Company, Box 7600, Chicago, Illinois 60608.

Contained in the text are four readings on mental health and the schools, five on children's problems in developing, five on social and emotional aspects of educational adjustment, five on cognitive development and mental health, and five on group aspects of classroom functioning. Six articles concern students with special needs, five discuss classroom discipline, and four consider the mental health of teachers. Also included are ten readings on intervention procedures in the school and six on intervention procedures in the community. Useful in relating mental health issues to the educative process.

Combs, A. W. Seeing is believing. Paper presented at Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Seattle, Washington, March, 1958.

This paper starts with the assumption that whatever we do as educators depends upon what we think people are like and then expands two basic principles in modern thinking about human behavior and their implications for educators. Principle 1 holds that people behave according to how they perceive themselves and their world and Principle 2 states that the most important single thing in determining the nature of a person's behavior is the perceptions he holds about himself (self-concept). It is thus important for educators to pay heed to the self-concepts of developing children. Useful in discussing the importance of self-concept and implications for educators.

Dinkmeyer, Don, C. Child Development: The Emerging Self. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1965 (Chapter 9 - Emotional Development).

This chapter lends an overview of emotional development from a pragmatic point of view. Individual variability of emotional response is stressed. Emotions should be viewed as positive and negative. There are physiological concomitants for emotions. Need theory can be used in the educative process to assist child in becoming aware of needs and finding ways to meet them. Emotional development is a product of both maturation and learning. Role of love and affection in child's development is highly important. Significant adults need to be aware of emotional problems in children. The school must play a significant role in emotional development in terms of its organization, objectives, attention to individual difference, and methods for early identification of emotional handicaps. Useful in providing a discussion of emotional development geared toward those dealing with children and emotional problems.

Elkind, D. Egocentrism in young children. The Educational Digest, 1972, February, 39-41.

In this brief article, Elkind stresses the practical meaning of Piaget's notion of childhood egocentrism. He holds that parents and professionals should understand that egocentrism is a natural childhood phase and that children thus need time to adapt to changing body proportions and to develop their new facility in language and thinking. Elkind, appalled by the overemphasis on the intellect, believes that we do children a disservice if we stimulate their intellect at the expense of nourishing their self-worth, their initiative, and their sense of being loved for what they are. Useful in stressing the importance of developmental readiness in teaching the child and in explaining in practical terms the meaning of childhood egocentrism.

Gordon, I. J. Stimulation via parent education. Children, 1969, 16, 57-59.

This article briefly describes a program in which mothers from disadvantaged neighborhoods teach indigent mothers of infants and young children how to find out whether the use of such parent educators: (1) enhances the development of children and (2) increases the mother's competence and sense of personal worth. The program is still in progress but thus far seems to indicate that (1) a parent education program using nonprofessionals and serving mothers living in difficult urban and rural conditions can be maintained and that (2) this type of program does seem to enhance the development of infants whose mothers are reached in their homes. Useful in presenting an early education program for parents.

Hemachek, D. E. Self-concept as related to motivation and learning. In R. D. Strom and E. P. Lorrance (Eds.), Education for Affective Achievement. Chicago: Rand McNalley, 1973, 262-266.

The premise of this article is that self-concept plays a highly significant part in a child's motivation and learning. The author presents summary statements drawn from seven different self-concept studies that support this notion. Specific recommendations as to how teachers can facilitate motivation and learning through self-concept enhancement are presented. Useful in providing practical information on development of self-concept.

Hess, R. D. The cognitive environments of urban pre-school children. Manual of instructions for administering and scoring home resources patterns. ERIC Reports, 1967, ED 018 260.

This manual describes measures used in "The cognitive environments of urban pre-school children" projects at the University of Chicago. The sample for the study consisted of 163 Negro mother-child pairs selected from three socioeconomic classes and a fourth group of father-absent families. Mothers were interviewed at home and mothers and children were tested when the children were four. Follow-up data were obtained when the children were six and again when they were seven. The information obtained was used to assess the degree to which objects, experiences, and attitudes in the home aid the child's readiness for school. The rating was made from an assessment of the availability and utilization of: (1) the resources which were classified into nine patterns. Useful in providing the manual for a test of resources available in the home which helps prepare a child for school.

Hillery, M. C., Lingren, R. H., and Remstad, R. C. A descriptive study of cognitive and affective trends differentiating selected groups of pre-school children. ERIC Reports, 1969, ED 031 314.

The purpose of this study was to describe ways in which disadvantaged children differ from their more advantaged peers in the areas of cognitive and affective developmental patterns, and to use this description to restructure curricular experiences for disadvantaged children. Five groups of approximately 30 preschool children each were tested three times with a battery of instruments. The instrument package, broken down into seven subtests, was designed to test a variety of developmental tasks. Appendices describe the instruments used. Disadvantaged groups of children performed at lower levels in all measured areas of cognitive functioning. Therefore, areas of serious deficit must be identified and tasks designed to build and improve these areas. The effects attributable to Head Start seem to be those changes which occur during the first weeks of any formal school program. Improvement in self-concept occurred in two of the five groups, which may be attributed to the integration of the disadvantaged and advantaged children in those groups. Advantaged children are accurate basis for the allocation of funds to equalize educational opportunity, thus funding should be allocated according to the needs of diverse groups. Useful in comparing affective and cognitive development of advantaged and disadvantaged children and making recommendations for programs that aim to equalize educational opportunity.

Houston, C. and Hodge, S. E. An Affective Behaviors Project Report. Denver, Colorado: Rocky Mountain Educational Laboratory, Inc., 1967.

This paper is written for reachers and other professionals who are interested in improving their teaching effectiveness in the affective domain. The report discusses these issues: definition of affect, relevance of affect to educators, attitude change in education, changing teachers' affective behaviors, and measurement of affective change. The major point being made is that educators can be more effective if they can change their attitudes toward emotional variables by removing these variables from the realm of ambiguity. The affective components of behavior in education must be seen as essential, rather than supplementary to the learning process. Useful in discussing educators' attitude toward affective education and changing these attitudes.

John, R., and Sieman, N. Affective Behavior: Recognition and Development of Appropriate Relationships. Devereux Schools in California, March, 1970.

This paper presents curriculum activities to promote or provide affectual training. A unit schedule is proposed which identifies a concept to be taught, names an appropriate activity, and discusses the method of implementation for elementary level classrooms. The program proceeds from learning appropriate verbal labels for emotional reactions to acting out situations of emotionality by performing and role-playing. The final part uses real life situations as they occur as material for concentration. Useful in presenting an affective curriculum for elementary level classrooms.

Kantor, R. E. The Affective Domain and Beyond. Menlo Park, California: Stanford Research Institute, 1968 (Educational Policy Research Center Research Note 6747-8).

In this article, Kantor analyzes psychology's philosophical stance on the study of the self and the future of affective education. Kantor believes that there is a revolution now underway in psychology that is characterized by a distrust of rationality and the importance of gathering and transmitting factual information and technical expertise. In education, we have learned much about effective teaching in the cognitive realm and must now redevelop curriculum so that it attends to affective learning also. Several approaches to the enhancement of the self are discussed and it is concluded that it is in education that much of the work must be done on the discovery of the subjective self. Useful in providing a philosophical discussion of psychology's approach to the study of affect and in providing several different approaches to the study of the subjective self.

Kelley, E. C. The place of affective learning. In R. D. Strom and E. P. Torrance (Eds.), Education for Affective Achievement, Chicago: Rand McNalley, 1973, 235-238.

The idea central to this article is that "how a person feels is more important than what he knows." We have reared a generation of students who have been schooled but not educated because our rigid subject matter approach has resulted in closed personalities. The need to begin planning curriculum with affective learning in mind is emphasized and ways to begin this project are discussed. Useful for discussing the value of affective learning.

Krathwohl, D. R., Bloom, D. S., and Masia, B. B. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives Handbook II: Affective Domain. New York: David McKay, 1964.

The rationale behind this classification system is that the objectives of education can gain meaning through (1) defining the objective in behavioral terms, and (2) trying to place an objective within a large over-all scheme.

The handbook addresses itself specifically to the classification of affective objectives. Part I describes the nature of the affective domain and the classification structure prepared for it. Part II gives the classification structure in detail and describes the evaluation of affective objectives at each level of the structure. Useful for those interested in affective objectives and their use.

Landry, R. G., Schilson, E., and Pardew, E. M. Self-concept enhancement in a preschool program. Journal of Experimental Education, 1974, 42, 39-43.

The authors investigated the effects of a preschool self-concept enhancement program on a group of four-year-old children. Significant increases in self-concept were found on fourteen variables in the experimental group. More significant gains in self-concept were made on five variables by the experimental group when compared to a control. Self-enhancing education does increase a person's conception of self at the preschool level. Useful in evaluating a preschool program designed to enhance self-concept.

*Leoine, E. Affective education: Lessons in ego development. Psychology in the Schools, 1973, 10, 147-150.

The author of this brief article notes that there are increasing signs of movement from mechanical teaching practice to humanized learning process. The rationale for instituting affective curriculum is explained and one example of an exercise employed in the Human Development Program, the magic circle, is described. It is concluded that knowing how to establish and maintain a schoolroom state of rapport in the domain of affectivity and communication, is a necessary component of responsible educational procedures. Useful in explaining in general and specific terms the importance of instituting an affective curriculum.

Lugo, J. O. and Hershey, G. L. Human Development. New York: MacMillan, 1974 (Chapter 10 - The Affective Domain).

The emphasis in this chapter is on positive human emotions and ways in which the human potential can be developed to its fullest. The authors' premise is that the development of full human potential is partly the result of achieving competency in the affective as well as biological and cognitive domains. The positive emotions of love, altruism, empathy, and maturing self-concept are discussed and the value of specific forms of these emotions are related. Useful in providing a discussion of the positive emotions and their values.

Mann, J. Learning To Be. New York: The Free Press, 1972 (Chapter 4 - Emotional Expression).

This chapter emphasizes the need for education to be concerned with emotions in an effort to utilize them for purposes of self-improvement and development. Three methods from dynamic psychotherapy, Gestalt, role construct therapy, and psychoanalysis are described in terms of their assumptions and goals. Ways in which emotional education can be profitably applied are discussed. Useful in providing information in ways to educate in the area of emotional development.

Miller, G. and Alford, R. W. Home-oriented preschool education: Field director's manual. ERIC Reports ED 082 844, 1972.

This manual is one of seven publications designed to implement the Home-Oriented Preschool Education Program which uses televised, mobile classrooms, and parent instruction to educate three, four, and five-year-olds. It describes (1) responsibilities of the program materials production team; (2) responsibilities of the field team which operates the program at the local level; (3) qualifications and position of field director; (4) equipment needed to set up a HOPE program; (5) general principles for curriculum planning; and (6) offers suggestions for the field director in recruiting and selecting staff and in conducting staff orientation and pretraining. The communication-quality control system which provides the materials production team with a basis for making program decisions is also described. Useful in providing guidelines for implementing HOPE programs.

Mood, D. and Johnson, J. Young children's understanding of the affective states of others: Empathy or cognitive awareness? ERIC Reports, 1973, ED 092 216.

The present study attempted to operationalize the constructs of empathy and egocentrism and contrast them with a cognitive explanation of the behavior of children on a task which required "S" to identify the affective state of himself and of others. Forty "Ss" aged three through five were presented a series of 23 stories describing an event which had occurred to a same-sex child (0). "S" was asked to indicate "how 0 felt" by pointing to one of five faces which "S" had previously identified as Happy, Sad, Afraid, Mad, and Neutral. With each stimulus story, "S" was also asked to show how he felt. A counterbalanced design was employed in which half the "Ss" were questioned regarding their own affective state prior to indicating how "0" felt, while the remaining "Ss" responded to 0's affective state first. Results indicate that (1) young children are capable of correctly identifying the affective states of others (57 per cent); (2) their self-responses are generally unrelated to their 0-response

(69 per cent); (3) "Ss" typically described themselves as Happy (67 per cent) regardless of the emotion described in the stimulus; (4) errors tend to be random. Neither empathy nor egocentrism account for "Ss" performance on this task. rather, "Ss" appear to have a cognitive understanding of O's affective state. Useful in looking at preschoolers' ability to recognize affective states in themselves and others.

Myrick, R. D. and Moni, L. S. The counselor's workshop: Helping humanize education. Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 1973, 7, 295-299.

This article gives a specific example of how counselors can help in humanizing education. A description is provided of how one counselor used a procedure called "Attitude Glasses". It is designed to help children recognize that (a) feelings and attitudes affect what a person sees; (b) what one person sees is not necessarily the same as what another will see; (c) what a person sees often determines how he behaves in a situation; and (d) the way a person behaves influences the way others respond to him. Useful in presenting a procedure in detail which enhances children's recognition of feelings.

Nimnich, G., Meier, J., McAfee, O., and Rogers, B. Progress report on research at the new nursery school. ERIC Reports, 1967, ED 032 930.

Program objectives were to develop children's abilities to deal with everyday and school-related problems, and to make them more inner-directed by (1) developing a positive self-image, (2) increasing sensory and perceptual activity, (3) improving language skills, and (4) improving problem-solving and concept formation abilities. Forty-five environmentally deprived three and four-year-old children attended the New Nursery School. Thirty were either Spanish or Mexican-American. The school was organized as an autotelic responsive environment. Each child explored activities freely, proceeding at his own rate to discover relationships. The learner was informed about the consequences of his actions by self-correcting toys, machines, other children, or the teacher. Pre- and posttests were administered to measure intelligence but no firm conclusions about IQ were drawn. Other tests given were the Preschool Inventory, Cincinnati Autonomy Test Battery (six tests), an articulation test, two tests on concept formation, and a test of color identification. On the whole, an experimental group of middle class children scored somewhat higher on the tests than the deprived children. Older children also had higher scores than younger children, indicating a pattern of orderly increase with age and nursery school experience. Useful in presenting a preschool program aimed at increasing inner-directedness and is compared to deprived and nondeprived children.

Nirk, G. Observations on the relationship of emotional and cognitive development. Journal of American Academy of Child Psychiatry, 1973, 12, 93-107.

This article speaks to the problem of the many disadvantaged children who come to school without having reached the levels of emotional and cognitive maturity needed for success in first grade. The problems of these children are greatly increased by the inept practices of our public schools. The combination of these two factors is responsible for the high failure rate of disadvantaged children in school. A significant factor in their failure can be attributed to lack of concern for emotional development. A preventive program designed to foster cognitive and emotional development of disadvantaged children is described. Within one year, the children gained 11.3 points on the WISC and also showed gains in numerical problem solving, language development, and school adjustment. After a year in a regular second grade classroom, the cognitive gains were lost, but adjustment gains continued. Well-planned compensatory education programs have a significant preventive mental health value. Understanding child development and the relationship between affective and cognitive factors should contribute to more effective programs in the future. Useful in discussing problems of the disadvantaged child and in reporting a program designed to foster cognitive and emotional development.

Ray, H. Media and affective learning. American Annals of the Deaf, 1972, 117, 545-549.

This chapter discusses the need to move from a focus on "task oriented teaching" to "problem oriented teaching" in an effort to emphasize affective learning. Inventing teaching strategies and designing learning resources for affective learning is viewed as possibly the number one problem of implementing the new goals for education. The author then discusses media tehcniques that may be in line with this goal. Useful in discussing the need for affective education and some possible media techniques.

Ringness, T. A. The Affective Domain in Education. Boston: Little, Brown, and Company, 1975.

The purpose of this book is to integrate some of the concerns of the affective domain, as well as to show how affective behavior is learned and may therefore be modified. The first few chapters deal with the importance of affective learning and a definition of the field. Various points of view are set forth. Both the learning-theory approach and the humanistically oriented approach are enlarged on in succeeding chapters. These outlooks, although antithetical, can be used together in the school setting if the teacher does not take an extreme position. The last chaper discusses helping the teacher to become more "affective". Throughout the book, the research upon which the text is based is presented. Practical suggestions and implications for the teacher are paramount, however. Useful in providing background and practical information on affective education.

Schlesinger, H. S. A child first. The Volta Review, 1969, 71, 545-551.

The author of this article believes that since the subtle interplay among members of a family has a profound influence on the development of a child's personality, a "healthy personality" of the parents is reflected by the child. In reacting to a child's rebellion, indifference and aggressiveness, it is not realistic to respond with unfailing gentleness because any child can spot phoneyness and loses faith in the fidelity of his parents' reactions. The author provides suggestions for fostering healthy communications between the child, specifically the deaf child, and the adults around him. Useful for parents and others working with deaf children wanting to learn about positive communication.

*Vanden Daele, L. D. Preschool intervention through social learning, ERIC Reports, 1969, ED 036 316.

This summary on studies on preschool intervention through social learning indicates that a child's mode of orientation and his general level of competence and maturity are, in large part, derived from his social environment. To the extent that specific aspects of that environment can be identified as significant antecedents to behavioral inadequacies, remedial efforts should concern themselves with those aspects. Disadvantaged boys from father-absent homes exhibit a low level of maturity in their cognitive, affective, and behavioral processes. Yet, while this immaturity seems clearly to spring from social factors, preschools have traditionally stressed school readiness skills. The problems experienced by disadvantaged boys seemed to be caused by a combination of (1) parental absence, (2) lack of appropriate masculine model, and (3) low social esteem of the male and male pole. Remediation seems to require at least (1) a competent masculine model, (2) varied child-model instruction, and (3) reinforcement of the boy's imitating behavior. The presence of these conditions in a coordinated social-learning program yielded signficant intellectual and emotional gains. Social-learning techniques can be used to supplement programs with specific enrichment goals, and may also be used to broaden the range of the advantaged as well as the disadvantaged. Useful in providing a fairly thorough report on the need for preschool intervention and in presenting a social-learning program and the benefits gained by it.

Wight, A. R. Affective Goals of Education. Salt Lake City, Utah: Interstate Educational Resource Service Center, 1971.

The purpose of this paper is to explore the affective domain in education with particular reference to goals and objectives. The discussion is descriptive, rather than prescriptive, describing the kinds of goals and objectives which have been developed as opposed to prescribing particular goals and objectives. Useful as a resource to schools and school systems in selecting and defining their own objectives.

B. Currriculum Handicapped

Cheney, D. How do you feel when you are angry 5 times per hour: Using data to evaluate role playing. Paper presented at the 52nd Annual International CEC Convention, New York, New York, April, 1974.

This paper described a program in which severely behavior-disordered children were taught an understanding of their own feelings, other's feelings, connections between affect and behavior, and the necessity of solving social issues together rather than individually. The purpose of the paper is to delineate a program which uses role playing as a treatment activity and behavioral data for an informational tool. Eight children, ages 8 to 11 were taken through the three phases of the study. State I dealt with helping individual children feel comfortable assuming roles by practicing acting in front of the group. State II served as a step for groups to role play situations before the rest of the group. State III enabled individuals to present their own problems to the group and search for solutions. Under these circumstances it was found that severely behavior disordered children can learn to express their feelings to other children. Useful in delineating a role-playing method to teach communication of affect.

Cheney, D. I want plus what do you want equals we want. Paper presented at the National Convention, Council for Exceptional Children, Los Angeles, California, April, 1975.

The present study focused on teaching specific behavioral responses to a population of emotionally disturbed children within role playing session. The purpose of the study was to ascertain: a) if children could learn to acquire negotiation skills in role playing sessions, and if so, b) determine the effects on these skills on the outcome of the problematic situation and c) determine whether the skills would generalize to an instructured activity session in which the children participated later in the day. Children aged 8 to 11 were first observed to obtain a baseline of negotiation and agreement behaviors. In the second phase they engaged in role playing sessions and in the final phase these role playing sessions also involved a therapist modeling negotiation skills. The role playing technique was found to be an efficiacious learning model for emotionally disturbed children. It was also found that modeling within role playing can be used as a positive behavioral change technique. Some generalization did occur for negotiation and agreement behavior outside the role playing setting. Useful for providing a technique for teaching negotiation and agreement behaviors in children and in providing results of research on the effectiveness of this technique.

Papes, M.L. After the hello, then what? Teaching social skills to severely behavior-disordered preschool children. Paper presented at the National Convention Council for Exceptional Children, New York, New York, April, 1974.

The objective of this project was to teach cooperative play skills to two severely behavior-disordered preschool children in an effort to modify their isolate play. The effects of verbal praise, antecedent stimuli, and instruction were examined informally. The results suggest that: a) the use of adult social praise effected contingency control and served as a functional reinforcer of cooperative play skills, b) varying antecedent stimuli had little impact, and c) direct instruction was a critical factor in stimulating stable social interaction. Useful in examining ways to modify isolate play and reinforce cooperative play.

Luterman, D.M. A parent-centered nursery program for preschool deaf children Interim report. October, 1967. ERIC Reports, ED 026772.

To try to produce more capable deaf children through early parental education, eight families participated in a two-semester program. Parents observed the children, aged 18 months to 3 1/2 years, receiving language stimulation in free play in a nursery and observed individual therapy based on the Tracy Correspondence Course. Non-directive group meeting encouraged parents to find their own solutions to problems. Therapists met with parents to discuss the goals and techniques of therapy; parents administered therapy first to another child and then to their own. Lecture type and fathers only meetings were also held. Evaluation of program success based on staff observations indicated growth and change in all of the children and in many parents. Almost all children were lipreading, using speech meaningfully, and performing better in social and play situations. Parents seemed to be helped in resolving their initial confusion, in getting the problem of having a deaf child into perspective, in recognizing that the child was primarily language handicapped, and in appreciating the job of the therapist. Useful in presenting a parent-centered program for producing more capable deaf children.

Mayer, C.A. Understanding young children: Emotional and behavioral development and disabilities. July, 1974. ERIC Reports, Ed 092258. Available from Publications Office I.R.E.C., College of Education, University of Illinois, 305 W. Pennsylvania Avenue, Urbana, Illinois 61801.

This booklet offers teachers, paraprofessionals, and parents practical, easy-to-read suggestions to help them understand emotional and behavioral development and disabilities in young children. Through a variety of examples, the booklet emphasized the techniques that show the teacher how to encourage and assist the young child to move toward emotional maturity and self-discipline. Helpful in training teachers and caregivers who work with handicapped children in a regular classroom.

Schlesinger, H.S. Headstart in deafness - early home environments. Paper presented as the 44th Meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, California School for the Deaf, Berkeley, California, 1969.

This author is in support of a comprehensive headstart program for deaf children, using as a base extensive clinical work and research studies of how these factors are influenced by deafness. It is concluded that it is of paramount importance that more deaf children and their parents be given the opportunity to engage in mutually satisfying developmental tasks of socialization. Useful in discussing early development of deaf and in recommending a productive "headstart" program.

Schlesinger, H.S. Responsiveness of the environment -- Residential School living. In D.W. Naiman (Ed.), Inservice Training of Afterclass Staff in Residential Schools for Deaf Children. New York: Deafness Research and Training Center, 1972. Pp. 19-24.

The author starts with the assumption that in some ways the more modern residential school for deaf children is able to provide a richer and more effective curriculum in the areas of academic achievement and vocational benefit, as well as in the art of living. Suggestions are then made for dealing with problems and implementing change in these areas: teaching the art of living, viewing deaf children in a new perspective, meeting the educational needs of deaf children from age three to eighteen, dealings with conflicts between inclass and afterclass class, and disciplining. Useful in discussing problems and goals of residential training for the deaf.

Schmitt, R. The affective domain: A challenge to ITV, affecting the human potential of the deaf student: Another role for educational Media. American Annals of the Deaf, 1972, 117, 493-499.

This chapter emphasized the need to include the affective domain in educating the deaf child and speaks to the role of instructional television in affecting this goal. The author provides a plan for the development of a systematic instructional system, beginning with the designation of educational goals and proceeding to the translation of these goals into objectives and then the development of instructional units. Useful in discussing the role of instructional television in affective education of the deaf and in providing specific suggestions for program development.

Strain, P.S., Cooke, T.P., and Appolloni, T. Teaching Exceptional Children: Assessing and Modifying Social Behavior. New York: Academic Press, 1976.

This book is divided into three principle sections. Chapter one traces the history of social-emotional education, reviews various theories of social-emotional development, appraises recent research on selected parameters of social-emotional development, and suggest the potential contribution of operant learning principles to social-emotional education. Chapter two discusses the relationship between theories of social-emotional development and the unit of measurement, or dependent variables selected for study in social-emotional research. A consolidation of methodologies is suggested in order to assess the enormous complexities of social behavior. In the final chapter, educational interventions designed to increase prosocial behavior are discussed. Useful to those concerned with the development and implementation of educational strategies designed to accelerate positive social interaction among exceptional children.

Thiagarajan, S. Affective Objective, deaf learners, and the programming process. American Annals of the Deaf, 1972, 117, 512-518.

The purpose of this chapter is to offer some practical suggestions on the use of the programming process for developing instructional packages that help deaf learners attain affective objectives. The stages of the programming process are described, including task analysis, design, editing, developmental testing, and validation testing. These steps are then applied to the design and development of a "program" in the affective domain. Useful in explaining the development of a programmed instructional package in the affective domain.

Wilson, J.A.R. Exploratory study of the effects of individual work on the functioning of maladjusted preschool children. Paper presented at California Educational Research Association, Santa Rosa, California, March, 1965.

An exploratory study of the applicability of a three-level theory of learning when used as a framework for emotional social learning is reported in this paper. Socially hostile preschool children were to be pleasurably reinforced for desirable activities, helped to see the relationship between the pleasure and the activities, and finally to see themselves as the kind of person who operates in a desirable manner. Case studies of preliminary work with five children are presented. Results indicate that the program was a probable, but unproven, success and that the ideas are worthy of further research. Useful in presenting an emotional social learning program for hostile preschoolers.

Wilson, J.A.R. Long term effect of structured training on 3 young children. Paper presented at California Educational Research Association, Palo Alto, California, 1966.

This paper is a report of an exploratory study of the applicability of a three-level theory of learning when used as a framework for emotional-social learning with preschool children. The hypothesis is as follows: Certain desirable activities, from the observer's point of view, can be associated with pleasure by linking the manifestation of the activity with pleasurable reinforcement: when linkage is sufficiently well developed a person can be helped to see the relationship between the pleasure and the kind of activities related to it. The case histories of three other children and the individual programs and goals and set up for them are presented. It was concluded that changes are possible even with severely atypical children. Useful in presenting a structured training program for social-emotional learning designed for atypical preschool children.

V. Readings related to instrumentation and research methodology in the study of affective development

Arnold, M. B. (Ed.) Feelings and Emotions: The Loyola Symposium. New York: Academic Press, 1970.

This book is a collection of papers presented at the Loyola Symposium on Feelings and Emotions. The papers are as follows: 1) Emotions, evolution, and adaptive processes; 2) The biological origin of love and hate; 3) Feelings as monitors; 4) The affective dimension of pain; 5) Emotion: Some conceptual problems and psychophysiological experiments; 6) Affect as the primary motivational system; 7) The assumption of identity and peripheralist-centralist controversies in motivation and emotion; 8) C. G. Jung's contribution to "Feelings and Emotions": Synopsis and implications; 9) Cognition and feeling; 10) The information theory of emotion; 11) The motivational and perceptual properties of emotions as indicating their fundamental character and role; 12) Perennial problems in the field of emotion; 13) The education of emotions; 14) Towards a cognitive theory of emotion; 15) The attitudinal character of emotions; 16) Emotion and recognition of emotion; 17) A dictionary and grammar of emotion; 18) Mood: Behavior and experience; 19) Emotional polarity in personality structure; and 20) Feeling as basis of knowing and recognizing the other as an ego. Useful in presenting an array of papers on theory and research in feelings and emotions.

Dowley, E. M. Cues for observing children's behavior. Childhood Education, 1969, May, 517-521.

This article stresses the importance of skillfully observing children's behavior in order to gain insight into the child's world. Some specific suggestions are made and it is noted that there are three levels at which observations can be made. The first level reports what the child does, the second expresses the child's feelings about what he does, and the third adds a personal touch of the observer by including his impressions and interpretations of the behavior he has observed. The task of the observer is to discover more clues to the child's purposes and feelings and more meaning to his behavior, so he can tap the inner workings of his mind. Useful in discussing rationale for tuning into the child's world and in providing suggestions for observers.

Dusek, J. B. Implications of developmental theory for child mental health. American Psychologist, 1974, January, 19-23.

The purpose of this article is to discuss several aspects of the Joint Commission on Mental Health of Children report in an attempt to define areas in which professional psychologists may contribute to the realization of the goals established by the Commission. The foundation of the Commission's suggestion is that rather than allow poor mental health to occur and then administer treatment, a system should be established to prevent the occurrence of poor mental health in children. It is pointed out that there are a number of basic research issues in need of further investigation and some possible research attacks are recommended. Useful in recommending research approaches to the question of how we can enhance mental health in children.

Harter, Susan and Zigler, Edward. Assessment of Effectance Motivation in Normal and Retarded Children. Developmental Psychology, 1974, 10, 169-180.

Several measures of effectance motivation were constructed and their validity was assessed by administering them to groups of subjects whose effectance motivation was assumed to differ. Normal, noninstitutionalized retarded, and institutionalized retarded children matched on mental age (6.3-8.4) were employed. Normals demonstrated more effectance motivation then did either retarded group. Measurement problems and the need for constructing adequate developmental indices of effectance motivation were emphasized. Useful in presenting rationale and data on construction of a measure of effectance motivation.

Johnson, O.G., and Bommarito, J.W. Tests and Measurements in Child Development: A Handbook. San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1971.

This source book collects and defines measures in child development which are unpublished but of value to professionals and which are suitable for use with children between birth and age twelve. The categories of tests covered include measures of cognition, personality and emotional characteristics, perceptions of environment, self-concept, environment, motor skills, brain injury, and sensory perception, physical attributes, miscellaneous attitudes and interests, and social behavior. Useful in surveying unpublished measures for child develpment.

Jones, N.B. (Ed.) Ethological Studies of Child Behavior. London: Cambridge University Press, 1972.

This book is a collection of studies of child behavior employing the techniques of ethological research. An introductory chapter describes characteristics of ethological studies of human behavior. Ethology had its origin in zoology and deals with questions of 1) causation, 2) development, 3) survival value, and 4) phylogeny. Ethological methods are characterized by an emphasis on a preliminary descriptive and observational phase, use of large numbers of anatomically described items of behavior, and a distrust of larger preselected and untested categories of behavior, The studies presented are divided into three main sections: child-child interactions, mother-child interactions, and comparative studies. Useful in describing the ethological approach and in providing several ethological studies for examination.

Meller, Daniel R. Motivation and Affect. In Paul H. Mussen (Ed.), Handbook of Research Methods in Child Develpment. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1960. Pp 688-769.

This section is devoted to descriptions and evaluations of the techniques that are commonly used in the study of motivation and affect. Methods for studying motivation are divided into two general types- those used to elicit behavior and those used to measure the results.

Each specific technique is considered in light of the theoretical topics to which it has been applied and the age levels at which it has been tried. The possible pitfalls of specific techniques are described to stress the importance of finding the correct technique for each problem. Some general methodological problems involved in the validation of tests of motivation, the selection of a sample and the control of the experimenter's influence on results are topics discussed at the end of this article. Useful in examining research methodology for motivation and affect in children.

Selman, R.L. Interpersonal thought in childhood, preadolescence, and adolescence: A structural analysis of developing conceptions of peer relationships. Paper presented at American Psychological Association, Chicago, Illinois, 1975.

This research project studies the stages in the development of interpersonal relationship concepts, particularly in the area of friendship concepts. An important part of the research aims at delineating which aspects or categories of social experience are worthy of study from a structural develpmental framework. Four developmental levels are indentified and the author claims that each developing level of perspective-taking provides a new organizing principle by which the subject can structure or view interpersonal relationships. The research is basically observational and descriptive. Useful in discussing research methodology in this area and aspects of interpersonal development.

White, B. L., and Watts, J. C. *Experience and Environment: Major Influences on the Development of the Young Child*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1973.

This book describes the Harvard Preschool Project which was designed to look at the development of competence by means of a longitudinal, natural experiment. Using an ethological approach, the investigators developed a list of specific abilities which characterized competence in six-year-old children. These specific abilities were then studied in an etiological fashion through a longitudinal study. Important conclusions are presented regarding: (a) the nature of competence, (b) environmental and physical conditions that facilitate the development of competence, (3) the assessment of competence. This book is extremely useful in detailing a research methodology that could be utilized in the affective area.

Yarrow, M.R., Campbell, J.D., and Burton, R.V. Child Rearing: An Inquiry into Research and Methods. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1968

The major purpose of this book is to examine the research methodology in the area of maternal influences on the child. The study involved a replication of an earlier study on child rearing practices, that of Sears, Maccoby, and Levin (1957) on Patterns of Child Rearing. The authors find that research on child rearing is riddled with methodological weaknesses. It seems for instance, that too much order (researcher interpretation) has been imposed upon the data. Researchers must, therefore, be cautious in their interpretations. The interview method is referred to as an "especially loose method for the performance of a difficult task". The adequacy of correlational data as evidence of processes is questioned. It is suggested that there is a need for multivariate analysis. Useful in evaluating child rearing research and making recommendations for future study.

Young, P.T. The role of affective processes in learning and motivation. Psychological Review, 1959, 66, 104 - 125.

The aim of this paper is to show that affective processes can be studied within a strictly objective frame of reference. Although feelings of pleasantness and unpleasantness are known directly only in human experience, the facts of animal behavior make it necessary to postulate that affective processes have an objective existence. Since affective processes are not directly observable in behavior, they must be postulated as intervening variables. Affective processes are motivational in the sense that they arouse, sustain, regulate, direct, and organize neurobehavioral patterns. The postulate that affective processes have an objective existence is demanded by the facts of food acceptance but the postulate has a wider range of possible application--to sexual behavior, play, manipulation, and exploration, as well as to human action. Useful in discussing objectifying affect for research purposes.